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ABSTRACT

To describe how Partnership for Rural Improvement (PRI) field program associates perceive themselves performing their role functions, three associates and two assistants responded to questions about: their tasks, responsibilities, and roles; how they got started; what skills they needed; and what materials or technical assistance could benefit them. The responses were analyzed and compared to role descriptions found in relevant literature. Associates described themselves as facilitators, social researchers, community educators, publicists, catalysts, process helpers, and resource links. The descriptions were supported by the literature. Their description of initiating, building, and maintaining PRI relationships served as the basis of a generic involvement procedure for field program associates. The procedure had five phases: orientation and awareness, problem identification, alternatives identification, planning and implementation, and on-going support. The document includes 16 articles and excerpts that can serve as a beginning collection of resources for the personal and professional growth of the field program associates. The document also includes 99 tools and techniques for use by field program associates, a briefly annotated bibliography of 55 materials available from the American Society for Training and Development, and a list of 20 new books and materials acquired by PRI. (SB)

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DRAFT
For Discussion Only

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
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THE FIELD PROGRAM ASSOCIATE
IN THE
PARTNERSHIP FOR
RURAL IMPROVEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The role of the Field Program Associate in the Partnership for Rural Improvement (PRI) program is unique. It represents an important attempt by a land grant university to find new ways of providing resources and services to rural areas. This is being done with the assistance of the Kellogg Foundation Grant and by three community colleges who have agreed with the Washington State University to joint appointments for the Field Program Associates.

The idea of dividing the ten county area into three sub-regions with Program Associates serving each one was not part of the original proposal to the Kellogg Foundation. It was during the Camp Field meeting in June 1976 when representatives from the region met to begin implementating the Project that this idea was born. Aside from a general job description that was used to recruit people for the role of Field Program Associate, there have been few if any guidelines to use by persons who accepted these positions. This document attempts to capture how the people in these roles perceive themselves performing various functions ascribed to this role.

The PRI program is now at the mid-point of the four year grant period and it seems especially timely to document how this role is functioging within each of the three regions. Major variables are in operation that are producing alternative approaches. These include such factors as the varied training and experience backgrounds of the Field Program Associates, size and nature of the sub regions, and the involvement of different partners in the sub regions. Variations like these are seen as strengths that are contributing to the development of the role and contribute to the success of the PRI program. A major purpose of this document is to record the roles as seen by those persons performing the role, analyze role likeness and differences and to compare them to historic roles as found in the literature. Later in the Project this information should aid in the formulation of a role model for the Field Program Associate.

The two year history of the PRI program indicates that personnel turnover is an important factor and must be anticipated in the future. Another purpose, in addition, documentation may be served by this document--one of introduction and orientation to the role for the new Field Program Associates.

The procedures used included an interview schedule that was sent to Field Program Associates prior to the extensive telephone interview and provided the basis for the information that was gathered. Summaries of these interviews were prepared and copies were reviewed by each Associate prior to drafting the final copy. The roles described by the Associates were then analyzed and compared to some of the more prominent change agent literature to discover any likeness and/or differences.

Concluding this document are sections containing professional resources selected to be of special interest to the Associate. Also a comprehensive set of tools and techniques that have been adapted from previously published Northwest Educational Laboratory materials are included for the field use of the Associate. The last section contains a bibliographic list of newly acquired materials that are available for use by PRI staff.

Obviously, these sections are incomplete since voluminous materials are available. It is hoped that Program Associates will contribute additional items from their own resource collections to make this a more valuable resource.

Janice and I wish to extend our appreciation to all the Program Associates and Assistants for taking time from their very busy schedules to provide us with the information for this document. Thanks Warren Adams, Jeanette Samek, Vicki Braglio, Sally Bartrum and Carol Oakes.

Ray Jongeward
Janice Druian

WHAT IS PRI?

OFFICIAL VIEW OF PRI - BEFORE PROJECT BEGAN*

Rural regions are confronted with a variety of political, economic, social and resource impediments to the achievement of an improved quality of life and environment. The emergence of complex bureaucratic systems in both public and private affairs, based on advanced technical knowledge requiring skilled specialists, has led to major shifts in social and economic organization. A vast array of public and private agencies and organizations provide services to rural areas, but often in isolation from each other and in piecemeal approaches. Citizens and public officials are often confused and frustrated by the complexity of issues they must resolve. They have not always been notably successful in working simultaneously with the wide range of specialized agencies at regional, state and federal levels. Educational institutions have a potential role in sorting out and helping to order the complexity, but have been ill-equipped to proceed.

The proposed rural planning and development programs will develop, install, and evaluate a model for collaboration and integration in a rural region, while increasing the competence of educational institutions in contributing to organization and support of planning and development activity. Efficiency in the production, delivery, and utilization of knowledge will be increased through a collaborative effort among the educational institutions, support agencies, and local jurisdictions.

The model proposed here has eight critical elements which are important both to its application in a single region and to dissemination in other areas:

First, the model will strengthen the capacity to achieve planning and development at two levels: (1) in localities, as individuals, organizations, and jurisdictions undertake development programs; and (2) in externally-based support agencies with responsibility for assistance to local efforts.

Second, it will improve and strengthen effective efforts in support of present development activities.

Third, the model will identify linkages among communities, agencies, and educational institutions and develop new linkages where effective links do not exist. Training activities and field services will be designed to assist individuals and organizations to build linking mechanisms as a basis for collaboration.

Fourth, a high level of participation will assure a major public role in defining issues, building effective collaboration, and influencing agency programs.

Fifth, the model will initiate an improved research and development system through a consortium of educational institutions serving the region. New linkages between users of knowledge (citizens, jurisdictions, agencies) and educational institutions will facilitate joint definition of issues by users and researchers to enhance the flow of knowledge production, delivery and utilization.

Sixth, the capacity for responding to public needs will be increased among educational institutions and support agencies.

Seventh, critical new regional planning and development roles will be developed and tested. Training programs to support these roles will be designed to build skills and utilize knowledge about community and regional planning and development requirements.

Eighth, programmatic research and evaluation will document, review, and test the application of the model. Analysis of critical processes will assist in evaluation of planning and development methods. As indicators of program impact, public preferences and reactions will be measured over time.

These eight elements are not mutually exclusive. Their interaction suggests that simultaneous attention to each should produce greater achievements than would a focus on only a few parts of the rural system. The program seeks to pursue all critical elements, and thereby create an improved system for planning and development in rural regions.

As the model is installed and begins to operate, a number of consequences are expected which will provide indications of success. These indicators are in one sense objectives of the program, but in another sense they are a test of effectiveness.

1. Community, regional, state and federal agencies become more effective in achieving goals related to rural planning and development, through improved linkages, communication and increased collaboration;

2. Community colleges, state colleges, and universities strengthen their capability in supporting community or regional planning and development functions;
3. Individuals within communities and support agencies will improve their ability to identify problems, set objectives, plan to systematically achieve those objectives, implement the plans, and evaluate the consequences;
4. Public institutions and agencies will continuously examine, redefine and adapt their objectives and activities in response to interactions with local jurisdictions, other agencies, and to current and future problems and opportunities in rural regions;
5. The quality and effectiveness of general education in rural regions through local schools, community colleges, four-year colleges, and universities will be improved;
6. The Land-Grant University structure and mode of operation will be directed toward more effective integration of instructional, research and extension resources in rural regions.

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* Excerpt from: "Collaboration and Integration in Rural Planning and Development," p. 1,2. A proposal to the Kellogg Foundation, September, 1975, WSU, Pullman, Washington.

ANOTHER VIEW OF PRI --- AFTER TWO YEARS

The Partnership for Rural Improvement is an idea! It is a concept! It is a paper organization! It is ad-hocery according to Toffler! It is what people want it to be!

What is PRI? It is a temporary mechanizsm to bring educational agencies, institutions, and organizations together with local citizens, elected officials, planners, government and education personnel for the purpose of improving the quality of rural life in eleven counties in North and Northeast Washington state. In the process, agencies and institutions are encouraged to examine their own organizations to determine how well they are able to deliver needed services to these rural areas. Collaboration and learning how to collaborate is paramount in the process.

PRI is not, then, a narrow, well-defined program housed in a single institution. Rather, it is a broad, creative idea that takes many forms. It is different things to different people. PRI is an opportunity to try new things in old settings and/or create new settings for old ideas. PRI is what people make it. It is an adventure into the known and unknown. Both community and organizational development strategies are being employed at the local level and at the institutional level. At times they are found together because of their close relationship.

In many ways PRI is only limited by the imaginations of those associated with it. What remains after the termination of the four-year Kellogg Foundation Grant will be what people have found valuable and fulfilling professionally and organizationally.

REJ

DOCUMENTATION OF CURRENT FIELD PROGRAM ASSOCIATE ROLES

DOCUMENTATION OF CURRENT PRI PROGRAM ASSOCIATE ROLES

Purpose of Documentation

In its second year, PRI can still be seen as in the formative stages of development. Two of the three program associates have been on staff less than a year. However, all have, by now, identified and established their roles within the project. Although each associate brought a wealth of previous experience to the new positions, the broad range of involvement that PRI offers has meant that each associate was required to assess existing skills and identify skill needs in order to accomplish the task of building a partnership for rural improvement. Due in part to their varied backgrounds -- sociology, group process facilitation, education, adult education and community resource development -- the program associates have each developed the associate role in slightly different and unique ways. We perceive these differences as strengths, and think it appropriate, at this time, to document the differences.

We hope that a comparison of the differences may lead to the development of a generic model for future PRI program associates. Therefore, we will discuss three different approaches to the program associate role and draw some conclusions from an exploration of the similarities and differences.

As we planned this position paper, we realized that one of the first tasks would be to interview the three program associates in order to gather data that would accurately reflect their perspectives of the tasks. We designed an interview instrument and mailed copies to each associate a week prior to the interviews. It was our intention that they have an opportunity to review the questions and spend some time reflecting on their positions prior to the interview. What follows is a list of interview questions and a summary of each associate's responses.

Interview questions:

1. *How would you describe your role(s) as a program associate for PRI?*
2. *How did you get started? What were your first tasks?*
3. *What are your ongoing responsibilities?*
4. *Examine your schedule and help us design a generic schedule for a program associate. (daily, weekly, long range)*
5. *What entry level skills does a PRI associate need to have?*
6. *What materials or technical assistance could benefit an associate?*
7. *How do you go about explaining PRI?*
8. *What would be of benefit to you in a manual or resource kit?*

* * * * * * *

Summary of Interviews

Program Associate #1.

"How would you describe your role(s) as a program associate for PRI?"

Program Associate #1 saw the role forming two clusters of activities. He identified activities that start up a project -- initiating, motivating, expediting, planning, etc. -- and those activities that maintain a program and allow it to grow -- facilitating, organizing, administrating, documenting, teaching/training. Although he acknowledged that there is much overlap in the roles, he felt that it was important for the program associate to recognize the evolution of the role. The program associate needs to be prepared to refocus his/her role. This associate also pointed out an interesting phenomenon about the position.[1] You may be in the role of catalyst with one group of partners (a new group to PRI) while assuming a maintenance and supportive role in another group (an ongoing group of partners who have clearly defined goals and an active project). He noted that this aspect of the job -- multiple role -- requires that the program associate have good diagnostic skills. He therefore felt that it was important to be able to diagnose the stage of development of a group in order to shape and define the appropriate role of the associate.

When asked about the position, he generated the following list (this was added to and verified by his program assistant):

Resource Linker:	Helping partners and other community members become aware of resources (human, material, etc. that can be made available.
Contact Builder Maintainer	An important role for opening and maintaining communication between the PRI project and key people in state and local agencies and institutions.
Documenter:	Keeping records of contacts made, problems identified and records of PRI involvement.
Meeting Facilitator:	Arranging for meetings (dates, places, etc.); building agendas, monitoring and supporting group processes.

---

[1] Two of the PRI regions have program assistants. In this paper we will try to draw a distinction between information gathered from the associates and information from the assistants.

Planning/Administration:	Identifying a path for development of the PRI network and those administrative duties (budgets, etc.) that keep the program functioning.

In addition to the listed tasks, both the associate and the assistant mentioned that there were clerical tasks. They said that a great deal of these were done by the assistant who also solicited help from partner agencies whenever possible. They also identified the important task of continuing to build their own individual understanding of state, local and private resources.

The associate in this region also felt that it was important for a teaming relationship to be built between the associate and the assistant (example: sharing training or teaching events) so that the assistant could become familiar with the role of the associate and be able to take on that role when the regular associate was not available. The discussion seemed to drift naturally to the second question:

"How did you get started?"

This associate differentiated between those tasks that build the internal teaming realtionship (associate/assistant; associate/PRI Staff) and those tasks that build a relationship with the partners. Some of the first internal tasks were to:

- Explore expectations and come to agreement about how the associate and the assistant would work together; identify individual and share tasks; set up a record keeping and account system; set up an office.

- Meet with PRI staff (in Pullman) to share expectations and build rapport.

The external steps included:

- Building contact: making entry into the community (this was frequently faciliated by a PRI person setting up a meeting with a key community member).
- Helping partners and community folks in sensing community goals (formal and informal needs assessments).
- Presenting orientation sessions (or meetings) with potential partners or concerned citizens).

At the time this associate joined the staff, the assistant had already been employed some months. She identified some initial tasks that she had started. If both members of a team started at the same time, these might be shared tasks. The first task was to identify potential community issues that could be addressed by PRI. To do this she: 1) read committee reports (state level, example: "Revitalizing Rural Washington,"); 2) identified issues given coverage in the local newspapers; and 3) interviewed staff of the city planner's office.

It seemed that an overarching task for both the associate and the assistant would become clear about the potential for PRI involvement. Once this was accomplished (actually, as they describe it, a "vision of potential," seems to be an ongoing task) they could determine strategies for intervention. The associate did say that after some orientation (he to his job, the partners to him) he saw his role as a catalyst/ facilitator whose task was to move the partners from the philosophic goal setting stage to a proactive stage of identifying projects and building linkages between those with a need and those who could pool services to meet that need. He was very conscious of his role as one of transition, and, whenever possible, took one or more partners along, thus building their independence.

"What are your ongoing responsibilities?"

The program associate and the assistant had no difficulty sharing a a rather extensive list of tasks:

- continue to act as a catalyst (motivate groups)
- respond to inquiries
- work with partners to build/expand philosophic base
- support chairperson/vice chairperson (of partner agencies)
- teach/train techniques (brainstorming, problem-solving, etc.)
- plan (internal; with PRI staff; with partners)
- demonstrate community development models, strategies and techniques to partners
- identify community development needs of partners and communities
- build and maintain contacts with state wise organizations and agencies
- link local people to resources
- model role of facilitator and help individuals build facilitation skills

Since the purpose of PRI is to build and maintain an ongoing reciprocal relationship between various institutions and agencies in

Washington, the role of the program associate is almost a cyclical one: awareness building, working with participants to identify problems, collaborating as a planner when a solution has been chosen, and serving as an informal evaluator as the plans are put into action and the project either becomes institutionalized or is completed. However, while the associate (and assistant) may be in the awareness phase with one participant, he or she may be in the planning phase with another.

"Examine your schedule and help us design a generic schedule for a program associate." (daily, weekly, long range)

Both the associate and the assistant in this region found this to be a difficult question to answer. They felt that there was no one typical day or week. They could generalize that each day had some time spent in contacting partners, some liaison work with the PRI staff and some time spend in keeping the records up to date. Some days were meeting days, while others were spent planning strategies for increased involvement. Both said that time was spent in building the resource library.

"What entry level skills does a PRI associate need to have?"

The program associate pointed out that to accurately examine the role of program associate and entry level qualifications, we need to consider attitudes in addition to skills. He felt that several attitudes were very important for the associate (and assistant). These were: a willingness to be flexible (not impose one's values on others); an ability to help others gain skills and to plan ways to diminish one's active role in problem solving; and a tolerance for ambiguity.

The associate then linked these attitudes with certain skills and knowledge that he considered entry level qualifications. They were:

- Communication skills: written and oral
- Group process skills: understanding of small group dynamics and how to intervene to improve group processes
- Basic understanding of Organization Development: communication, decision making, problem solving skills
- Administrative skills: record keeping, budget management, office management
- Basic understanding of community development
- Promotion skills

The associate added several others:

- Background in social planning
- Research
- Interpersonal skills

Both the associate and the assistant commented that since they came from different disciplines (education and urban planning) they formed a complementary relationship and felt that the diversity was an asset.

"What materials or technical assistance could benefit an associate?"

Both the associate and the assistant identified a need for a PRI library that could serve as a resource center for the associate, assistant and partners. Topics of materials included: change agentry, consultation, facilitation, group processes, economic development, community development and growth impact literature.

They also identified the need for a brochure that describes PRI. They noted that they receive frequent requests for "just a little information about PRI," and a brochure is helpful.

Both the associate and the assistant commented that they would like to have information about ongoing successful community development projects in other states.

When asked about technical assistance needs they identified a need for occasional over-the-shoulder assistance. A consultant providing this type of technical assistance could be a neutral third party, and could have a different perspective on the progress being made by the program associate. The consultant could suggest alternative approaches or offer hints for improvement. They also said that they needed an occasional infusion of new ideas and these could be obtained at workshops. (Examples were workshops provided by NTL and University Associates).

"How do you go about explaining PRI?"

They said that they follow a similar format for both individuals and for groups. They describe a little about the history of the project, the basic philosophy of PRI and talk about what is going on in current projects. If they are meeting with a group they occasionally engage in futuring activities so that participants at the meeting can explore possibilities and goals about proposel future projects.

"What would be of benefit to you in a manual or resource kit?"

The associate and the assistant thought that the manual needed a preface where the philosophical underpinning of PRI was presented -- the value base of interagency collaboration. They also thought a manual should review several topic areas: community development; citizen involvement; the interdisciplinary background of community development (political science, sociology, anthropology and economics).

A manual could present a generic model for citizen involvement and suggest that the practicioner make adaptations from this model. Certain procedures could be outlined in a resource kit: brainstorming, decision-making, prioritization, force-field-analysis, conflict negotiations, etc.

Their final suggestion was that the manual explore one of the interpersonal skills needed by a team, such as their own team of one associate and one assistant. These skills included teaming, giving each other positive reinforcement, giving negative feedback in a way that is helpful, dealing with the temporariness of the program associate/assistant position "if you are successful you work yourself out of a job" and how to deal with a job that is often in response mode -- how to turn a crisis situation into a positive proactive way to build community development.

Program Associate #2[2]

"How would you describe your role(s) as program associate for PRI?"

This associate related her role to the goals of PRI, specifically three goals that were listed in the vacancy announcement: program implementation and development, intra-organizational development, and inter-organizational development." She stated that these goals govern her work in what she described as a change agent: "With that in mind, I perform tasks of a change agent in encouraging the partners to identify projects that the partnership feels are worthwhile endeavors for PRI, experimenting with strategies in reaching solutions to community problems, and helping partners to see their role in rural development by encouraging them to be active in projects where they have the resources that are especially useful."

She went on to describe her own adaptation of the four roles of change agentry(Havelock, 1973):[3]

> "Catalyst: identifies problem areas in community; suggests strategies for change; encourages partnership and citizen participation in the solving of community problems."
>
> "Information Coordinator: keep the local partnership and Washington State University administration informed about community development programs and activities in the sub-region."
>
> "Process Helper: guides community groups and PRI partners through the 'how to' of problem solving. This includes not only group facilitation, but also an understanding of social change processes. Included in this would be encouraging inter agency cooperation by improving communication networks."

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[2] Note: This program associate was interviewed separately from her assistant. However, we will include comments made by the assistant, when they are significantly different from the associate and indicate who was the respondant.

[3] Havelock, Ronald L., Training for Change Agents, Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, University of Michigan, 1973 Havelock identified the roles as: Solution Giver, Process Helper, Catalyst, and Resource Linker.

> "Resource Linker" assessing resources in the community; coordinating the efforts of citizen groups, local elected officials, community decision makers and local, state and federal agencies with meeting the needs of rural communities."

Finally, this associate described her role as that of a "practical sociologist" (sic). She described a practical sociologist as one who, in an inter-agency setting, tests the level to which agencies can work together.

The assistant from the western region, while using slightly different terms, also said the role of the associate is that of a change agent. This assistant, too, had been hired prior to the associate and had started to gather information about the community, helped build the partner network and set up the research and documentation files. She saw the role of the associate as one in which agencies and organizations are assisted through better communication and information sharing to identify community needs and to work together in a problem solving approach to community change.

"How did you get started? What were your first tasks?"

This associate identified her first task was to become familiar with PRI, Washington State University, Wenatchee Valley College, the sub-regional partnership and the communities of her region. In a critique of the first draft of this position paper, she further elaborated on her interview by providing a list of first tasks:

1. "Become familiar with PRI: Ask how it was conceived and what it is now. Review the files, read the annual report and go over the goals. Read the newsletters and the minutes for each subregional meeting, as well as the minutes for the RCC and WSU advisory council. Read the correspondence and review the status of ongoing projects. Make sure you understand the relationship PRI has with WSU and your relationship with the Program Administrator and try to get a feel for PRI's administrative procedures."

2. "Become Familiar with Washington State University: Find out what resources are available in each department, i.e., education, engineering, rural sociology, Cooperative Extension Service, etc. What are the research and extensions specialists working in (sic) that may be appropriate for your subregion? Know the resources available at WSU and know what limitations are on these resources." (constraints)

3. "Become Familiar with the College: Read the college staff manual, get a feel for the courses that are offered, and know the schedule. Try to find out who's-who in the college, and if possible, have someone take you on a tour and introduce you around. Understand internal procedures, e.g., travel vouchers, purchasing, ordering equipment, etc. Know the resources that are available through the college and know the limitations of these resources."

4. "Become Familiar with the Other Partners and their Institutions (Cooperative Extension Service, Regional Library, County Planning Offices, Educational Service Districts): Visit each partner on an individual basis--in their office. Ask them for a tour of their office and meet as many people as possible. Ask them to explain what they believe PRI to be. What it can be? What they want it to be? Ask them to tell you how they perceive your role, and ask them what level of commitment do they have to PRI in terms of staff time and resources."

5. "Become Familiar with the Community: Look at the physical environment; study road maps; know where towns are; know the population and other demographic information for your subregion. Study the organizational structure of the community. Prepare a mailing list, or look through an existing one to see who are the local government officials, also note what agencies and institutions are operating in the community. Visit as many agencies and institutions in the subregion as possible and ask them to take you on a tour of their offices (PUD, CAP, Port Districts, County Commissioners, City Councils, etc.). What service clubs are active in community affairs? What volunteer groups can you tap?

   What is the power structure--who are the other actors in the community? Read about the roles and responsibilities of elected officials. Know the governmental systems that are operating. How many cities are incorporated and what services can they obtain from the county government?

> What are the main industries in the subregion: What percentage of revenue do they bring into the subregion? Obtain phone books from all communities in the subregion and read the yellow papers to get a feel for the services available. Keep up with current events; subscribe to all the weekly and daily newspapers in the subregion and visit the newspapers and key radio stations."

In addition to this advice from the associate, the assistant also shared some of the first tasks that she saw as important to building the project. She noted that in addition to many of the general awareness building tasks, listed by the associate, she familiarized herself with the data from the Alternatives for Washington Project. She then used the information from this and other sources as baseline data and attempted to validate the findings by interviewing partners and also the information specialist from WSU, to see if local needs were similar to the findings. By the time the associate was hired, the assistant had built several key linkages with the partners. They decided that the assistant should continue with these contacts, thus maintaining facilitation continuity with the partners.

Due to the complex nature of building a partnership between several agencies, the associate felt that it was reasonable to expect an associate to be in an awareness phase for up to six months. However, during this time there would be many tasks accomplished in terms of needs assessments and identification of resources that would later become part of a systematic problem solving process. (This is supported by Conner, see the summary for this section.)

"What are your ongoing responsibilities?"

During the initial telephone interview the associate identified ten specific tasks:

- Liaison with Washington State University

- Administrator
- Coordinate activities of the Partners
- Identify projects
- Help new partners see a role in Community Development
- Encourage partners to participate
- Educate partners in community change process (develop models, team building)
- Documentation
- Facilitate meetings (or support others in this role)
- Work with task forces on particular assignments

Upon reflection (after reviewing a draft of this paper) she shared this additional perspective:

> "My ongoing responsibilities include working with the partnership in the accomplishment of its goals (please refer to question one). As a PA, I am looked upon by the partners as a fellow partner. However, unlike the other partners, I have no strong institutional ties and this allows me to remain neutral and objective. The nature of the neutrality gives me the freedom to create a climate for interagency cooperation by stimulating and encouraging communication, as well as coordinating the activities of the partners that are involved in PRI projects.
>
> Potential areas of concern in the communities are either identified by me (sic) or by the partners, but a consensus is taken before project implementation. Once viable projects are identified, task forces composed of partners are established to set the direction for strategy, my role in the task force is to encourage partners to participate in community problem solving and to guide partners who are not familiar with processes through the social change strategies. It is my attempt to create a learning environment in these task force meetings so that we may share information, exchange ideas, and learn different ways to approach problems.
>
> My other tasks center around the duties of an administrator in handling the budget, documentation of pertinent data, attending staff meetings, and acting as liaison for the western subregion with the rest of the PRI staff.

> While most of my time is spent working with the partners, I also concern myself with community work in identifying needs in the community, linking resources, and through the use of partner resources, guide the community groups through learning processes."

"Examine your schedule and help us design a generic schedule for the program associate." (Daily, weekly, long range)

As in the previous interview, the associate and the assistant both felt that this was a difficult question to answer. The associate did, however, send us a tentative planning shcedule that is broken into six month intervals:

> December 1977 - May 1978 Become familiar with PRI, WSU, WVC the partners, and the community (see second question), as well as have a feel for state and federal programs involved in rural development. Examine the goals and projects established for the subregion, and begin working on gaining support by participation.
>
> June 1978 - November 1978 Encourage the partners to commit staff time and resources in project implementation. Begin encouraging partners to support PRI through inkind contribution. Obtain outside funding for project that will continue beyond the two years. Have local government involved in PRI project selection.
>
> December 1978 - November 1979 Gain partner institutional support from staff members outside the individuals represented in the PRI subregion. Begin having partners take on duties of PRI staff (arranging meetings, writing up minutes, etc.) as the program assistant role should be phased out at this time. Expand PRI activities in regional affairs, have CETA or grant supported employees placed in different institutions to promote goals of PRI and carry out the tasks of associates with project implementation.
>
> December 1979 - May 1980 Evaluate the partners effectiveness in project implementation, evaluate the effectiveness of educational delivery systems, define the level to which the partners can effectively and efficiently work together on cooperative projects.

"What entry level skills does a PRI associate need to have?"

The associate generated a list of qualifications from her position:

- A master's degree[4] with two years experience in either ESD, Planning Office, Extension, A community College or a Regional Library. (For the Moses Lake position there could be advantages in hiring someone who had experience someplace other than in the Extension Service or ESD office.

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[4] She did not elaborate further on the reasons for requiring a Master's Degree; i.e., the skills and competencies that this would specifically bring to this position.

- "Course background in community development, economics, political science, sociology, education, planning or a related field."
- "Understanding of group behavior."
- "Be able to get along with people and possess neutrality:
- "Have a thorough understanding of how to work in an inter-agency setting (perhaps it would be better if the PA could have worked in two of the participating partner institutions).
- "Understanding of political systems:
- "Understanding of processes (not just with in-group behavior, but an understanding of how one or more groups relate to the total community)"
- "Understanding of content, i.e., grantsmanship, planning, local government roles and responsibilities, etc."
- "Know how to assess community needs"
- "Know how to mobilize resources"
- "Know how to develop an educational program based on needs"

Our interview with the assistant also focused on effective characteristics, some mentioned by the associate. These included the ability to be perceived as a neutral third party, with no advocacy positions. She felt that this low-key approach was most facilitative to the partners; it assisted the partners in developing ownership of the outcomes of any project. She also emphasized the need for the associate to be a self-starter, a person who can serve as an active catalyst for the partners, helping them to develop the enthusiasm and interest necessary for involvement.

"What materials or technical assistance would benefit an associate?"

Both the associate and the assistant identified an initial need for reference material. This would include a list of agencies with names of staff in their subregion and within the state. They also wanted a core reference library containing literature about community development, group processes, change theory, organizational diagnosis, and material to help analyze local politics.

The assistant felt that several initial training sessions where staff could learn process skills (decision making and meeting procedure) would have been helpful. The associate identified a growth impact session that was helpful to her when she first started.

Conversely, the associate felt that there was already enough assistance in the area of group processes and small group facilitation.

> "As I mentioned before, we as Program Associates need more information o between group process skills, (i.e., Beal, Bohlen, Roudabough, Havelock, etc.). We could do well with more materials on strategies to change (Rogers, Shoemaker, Weiss, etc.) and community resource analysis (Williams, Howell, etc.).
>
> In looking at technical assistance, the best approach would be to assess the local resources first and then make requests. In my work I encounter communities who need technical assistance in civil engineering planning, grantwriting, etc. It would be encouraging to know that we had resources in our institutions that could help communities in the fulfillment of their perceived needs first, so that we could then work on other areas of need awareness."

"How do you go about explaining PRI to the uninitiated?"

The associate included two examples of how she defines PRI:

> The long definition: "A simple definition of PRI can be found in two goals that are spelled out in the annual report. One is the explanation that PRI is a working experiment--trying to test the level to which various institutions can work together. This test is done through project implementation.

> The second goal is of an intra-agency nature, in that we are trying to improve the delivery of services for participating institutions. This is done through needs assessment and identifying resources. Our over-all goal is to improve the rural quality of life for the eleven counties involved in PRI"
>
> The short definition: "A bringing together of educational and planning institutions in a cooperative effort and to use their resources to make rural living better." (Dick Bartram, Bridgeport School Board Meeting, January 17, 1978)

The assistant went on to describe a procedure whereby she explains a little about the history of the project--how it came to be funded by the Kellog Foundation and the goals of the project. She then tailors any additional presentation to the specific needs of the person or group seeking information. She helps them identify how they fit in with the project and identify the potential that they can see for participating in the project.

"What would be of benefit to you in a manual or resource kit?"

The associate asked for any material that would help an associate with the task of building inter-agency collaboration. She said that although she had looked for material to help with this, and although the need for such material is obvious, she had not come across anything that was really suitable. She also said:

> "I believe the need for a Program Associate's manual is justifiable and the time put forth in its development worthy, but I would encourage that any document produced in the name of PRI include a broader base of philosophy and not have its efforts limited by one frame of reference."

Program Associate #3[5]

"How would you describe your role(s) as program associate for PRI?"

"How did you get started?" (Questions 1 and 2 were combined in this interview).

Originally this program associate spent time getting to know people. Before determining how she would carry out the task and how she would best use her own style, she consciously explored other's expectations about the role. She met with staff of PRI to build a teaming relationship between these faculty members and herself. (It may be significant that she identified a need to team with these people. This was the only associate who had no assistant with whom to team.) She said that she worked with the assumption that the PRI faculty and she could form an effective team, and was not disappointed. She is quite satisfied with the increasing level of trust and mutual support offered by her team members.

She then set up the norm that her position could be that of a referral agent for the partners. She would be available to receive proposed project referrals and would work as a linker between the agency initiating the referral and people who could help with meeting the need. For example, she received a request from some county commissioners to analyze potential growth in their county. She set up a meeting between the commissioners and a person from WSU who is an expert in growth impact studies.

This associate sees much of the role of the associate as that of process facilitator. The associate needs to work with groups in order for them to share expectations, set goals and determine next steps.

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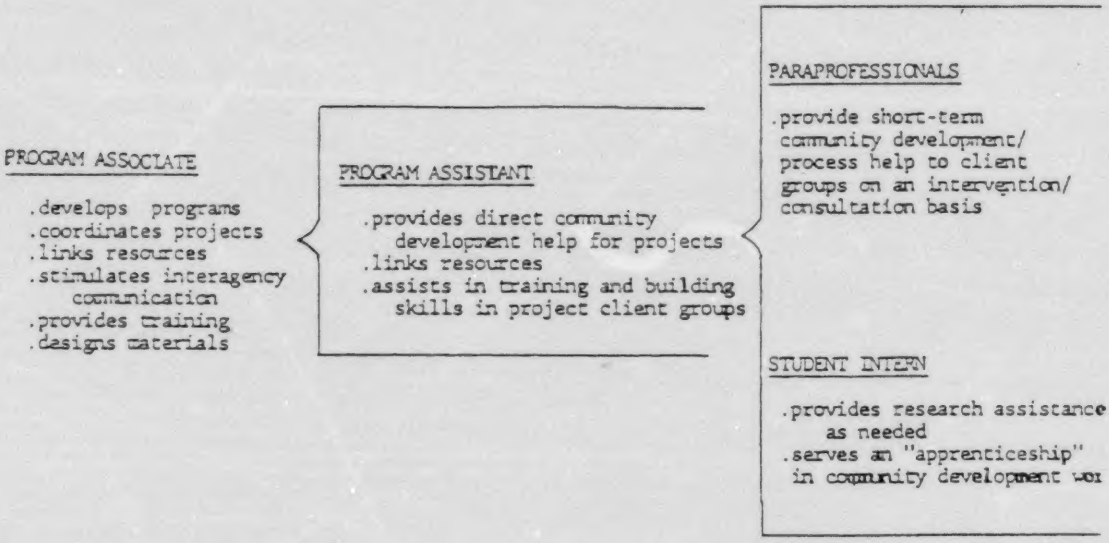
[5] This associate does not, at this time, have an assistant, therefore, this interview reflect the perspective of one person.

As previously mentioned, this associate does not, at this time, have an assistant. She has, however, been working with student assistants and some paraprofessionals, and has developed a proposal for hiring an assistant. She has given a good deal of thought to the various roles that would comprise such a team:



PROGRAM ASSOCIATE

- .develops programs
- .coordinates projects
- .links resources
- .stimulates interagency communication
- .provides training
- .designs materials

PROGRAM ASSISTANT

- .provides direct community development help for projects
- .links resources
- .assists in training and building skills in project client groups

PARAPROFESSIONALS

- .provide short-term community development/ process help to client groups on an intervention/ consultation basis

STUDENT INTERN

- .provides research assistance as needed
- .serves an "apprenticeship" in community development wor

"What are your ongoing responsibilities?"

In addition to the resource linkage and facilitation skills already mentioned, the associate must develop a schedule for periodically spending equal amounts in all of the counties (6) in the region. This associate thought this was important if all areas are to receive equal service. Additional ongoing tasks include monitoring the budget (the sub-regional budget as the WSU budget is a fixed cost budget), initiating and conducting planning meetings and generally being available to answer questions about PRI. The associate has also identified tasks that can be delegated to a student intern, thus freeing up her time to work with the partners. The delegated responsibilities include clerical responsibilities, office maintenance (phones, etc.) and some recording and documentation. This associate has also started preparing a monthly report for the partners and for the WSU staff. She felt that this kind of tangible documentation that is shared with everyone is one way of keeping people up to date in a systemmatic and regular way.

"Examine your schedule and help me design a generic schedule for a program associate."

Although this associate found the task of developing a generic schedule describing daily or weekly tasks, difficult (as did other associates), due to the fact that so much of the work is responsive, she has developed a plan of work for herself and for other staff involved in her project. This is included as a sample:

EASTERN SUBREGIONAL PLAN OF WORK

1978 - 1979

PROJECT	NATURE OF ASSISTANCE	STAFF	RESOURCE STAFF	STAGE OF INTERVENTION	CLIENT GROUP	COMMENTS
Nine Mile School District Directors training	.Process consultation .Educational	Bill Coetter, Vicki Braglio	WSU: Bob Cruenwald	initial	School director and administrator	.should include considable development of materials
Lincoln County Rural Women's Program	.process consultation .grants writing	Vicki Braglio Student Intern	Lincoln County Agent: Betty Lou Henry District 17, Women's Program: Shirley Michaelson Co-op Ext: Lorna Butler	initial	AAUW: Social Services agency staff	.assistance in forming a steering committee for WOI mini-grant work
Spokane County Planners, Citizens and Officials	.educational	Dwight Pace Student Intern	WSU: Jim Baron " Ron Faas Bob Howell Ralph Loomis	mid-way	Spokanu County Planning Comm. Spokane long-range Planning Staff Citizens groups	.1st workshop held May 11 with PAW at Cheney
Ritzville Comprehensive Planning	.technical	Joe Luther		mid-way	Planning Commission	.Student intern in place summer 1978
Staff Development and Traing Spokane County	.process consultation .technical	Vicki Braglio Dwight Pace	EWU: Bill Coetter	initial	Spokane County Planning Staff	.Fall 1978 workshop on process facilitation
Liberty School District Citizens Advisory Group	.process consultation .technical	Vicki Braglio Bill Coetter	EWU: Media Center, Video technicians	Completed first phase	Citizens, School officials	may be further request for help in community attitude survey
Process Facilitation Training	.educational .materials development	Vicki Braglio	EWU: Bill Coetter	Mid-Project	Citizens groups, Agency staff	.EWU is granting participants (4) credits for the series of six workshops-will b offered in Fall 78

TABLE II - PLAN OF WORK

It is worthwhile to examine this plan of work in some depth. The categories present a broad picture of the workings of a subregion. If you examine the first column on the left you can see that there is a variety of programs--school related programs, planning commission programs, staff development projects, etc.--going on in a wide geographic area. The range of skills ("Nature of Assistance") that the associate must have or locate is also wide. These range from technical skills (example: land use planning), where it is the expectation of the client system that they will receive some answers, to teaching skills, where the client can develop her/his own skills to process skills where the client can receive assistance with the way things are done rather than what specifically is done.

It is also informative to examine how this associate has pulled together a team of people with diverse and complementary skills (Staff) to assist the partners. The associate is a trained process facilitator, while other staff persons have experience in community action, land use planning and education. The staff also represents two different institutions of higher learning, thus reinforcing the partnership concept. Her resource staff further expands the potential for consultation and assistance to partners of PRI.

It is also supportive of the previous associate comments to note that while some projects are in an initial stage, others are either mid-way through or have reached some stage of completion. The role of the associate with some groups may be initiator while with others, at a different stage of completion, the role may be one of diminished visibility.

This plan of action gives a clear picture of the diverse tasks facing the associate and the opportunities for building partnership between member institutions.

"What entry level skills does a PRI associate need to be successful?"

This associate identified proficiency in several skill areas as important for working with both individuals involved with change efforts and with partner and potential partner agencies--these could be labeled as facilitation skills:

- communication skills
- problem solving skills
- decision making skills (ability to facilitate groups with decision making)
- group diagnosis skills; intervention skills
- needs assessment skills
- developing a teaming relationship

She also emphasized the need to be able to identify resources and share information. A subset of skills needed for information sharing include: communication skills and writing skills.

Having some theory base from which to work was seen as useful. By this the associate meant having a rationale (based in theories of change, group processes, communicating development, etc.) for diagnosis and strategy implementation. This associate had considerable experience in facilitating groups and relied on her understanding of change theory, group development and group processes as a base upon which to build an understanding of community change as evolving in the PRI project.

Two personal styles were also identified as important for the associate. The person in this role, according to this associate, needs to be both flexible and be a promoter. She/he needs to be able to revise plans, adapt to new situtations, yet still be able to develop and sell some aspects of PRI. Making and maintaining professional contacts is important to the role.

"What materials or technical assistance could benefit an associate?"

As this person was already skilled in group process techniques, she felt that she would have benefited most from materials or workshops focusing on diverse models of change agentry. She also would have liked having access to a network of change agents.

A directory of resources within the state, and especially within the region, would have been of very practical assistance. She also identified a need for a list of county commissioners and faculty that would be involved in the project. She felt that workshops in the following areas would always be of assistance:

* Designing skills for developing experimental learning workshops
* Group diagnosis techniques
* Development of strategies for citizen participation
* Human relations training

This associate identified assistance falling into two categories: (1) materials (directories, etc.) and (2) consultation and training assistance in community development, land use planning, group processes and change agentry.

"How do you explain PRI to the uninitiated?"

This associate determined that her descriptions of the project would vary from audience to audience. For those simply curious, she gives a brief overview of the funding base, the goals of PRI and the interrelationship between local government, local agencies and the various partners.

For persons interested in becoming involved in the workings of PRI, she works with them to identify their needs and resources and how they fit into the picture.

"What would be of benefit in a manual or resource kit?"

This associate thought that materials should be organized according to awareness materials (for the novice associate) and supplementary materials for the associate who has been with the program for some time. These materials could fall into several topical categories:

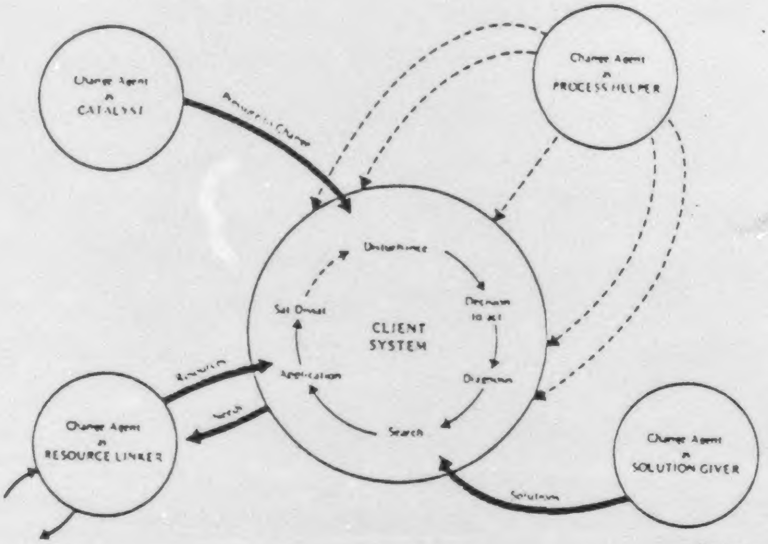
- Group Processes
    - decision making
    - communication
    - problem solving
    - conflict management
- Group Diagnosis
- Organization Development
- Change Agentry
- History Statement (PRI)
- Land Use Planning
- Resources (state and local)
- Directories (state and local)
- Information about workshops and training events
- Bibliographies

She cautioned, however, that materials, especially procedural materials, need to have an explanation that they are only guidelines or samples, and that to be effective the associate needs to modify or adapt them to specific situtations.

COMPARISON OF CURRENT PRI PROGRAM ASSOCIATE ROLES WITH CHANGE AGENTS LITERATURE

In comparing the five interviews, three from the program associates, two from the program assistants, we were struck more by the similarities between the responses than by the differences. True, each person came from a slightly different background and professional perspective; they each identified slightly different needs, but in many cases these were similar needs. For example, one associate felt that she needed additional training in group process skills, while another, who had worked as a process facilitator, expressed a need for additional design skills related to developing sessions that provided participants with experimental learning experiences. Both of their needs can be addressed by training in the area of group development. Other similar needs work for additional knowledge about land use planning and environmental impact. As they described the role of the program associate, it seemed, too, to validate a model for a change agent developed several years ago by Ronald Havelock[6] (see Figure 1).

FOUR WAYS TO BE A CHANGE AGENT



Change Agent as CATALYST
Pressures to Change
Change Agent as PROCESS HELPER
Disturbance
Decision to act
Set Down
CLIENT SYSTEM
Application
Diagnosis
Search
Resources
Search
Change Agent as RESOURCE LINKER
Change Agent as SOLUTION GIVER
Solutions

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

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[6] Havelock (1973) op.cit.

This model discusses four roles of a change agent, catalyst, process helper, resource linker and problem solver. This is how we see Havelock's model applying to the PRI project:

Catalysts: In one way or another, each of the associates described their role as that of a catalyst. Havelock describes the role of catalysts as the intervention to overcome inertia -- to prod and pressure the system to be less complacent and to start working on its serious problems. If we consider the stystem the educational and service organizations in Washington, then the program associate, as catalyst, prods the associations to explore ways in which a partnership would result in better delivery of services. Both the central and western subregion associates commented that they needed to prod the partners to get from the philosophizing phase of awareness to the phase where they identified specific projects that needed attention.

Process Helper: Although all of the persons interviewed identified the role of having a strong emphasis in process help, this was especially true of the associates in the central and eastern subregions. Both of these people have undergone extensive training in group process work and therefore are especially sensitive to process needs. Once a project is established it is important for the agent to be conscious of the needs of members (partners and citizens) to the basic needs (Schutz, 1958) of groups -- needs for inclusion, control and affiliation. The associate, working with community leaders, needs to plan strategies to help participants have these needs met.

Also in the role of facilitator, the associate is responsible for helping groups attend to their group process needs -- communication, decision making, problem solving and management of conflict.

Resource Linker: Perhaps the most frequently identified skill in relation to the role of the associate was that of resource linker. The associate can be seen as the hub that links all the spokes of the PRI network. Consider the various parts of this project that need linkage. (see Figure 2)

To be the source linker to this diverse audience, it is not surprising that those interviewed all said that a major resource need included agency directories.

Solution Giver: Havelock identified a fourth role for the change agent -- Solution Giver. This was not a role that was mentioned by any of the associates. (The closest that anyone came is one quoted statement where an associate described the role as "identifying client needs for them." It would be fair to assume that they view themselves as outside the system and in that way not legitimate to give solutions, but rather legitimate to help partners identify alternative solutions and choose between alternatives.

Considering this difference from the Havelock model, one could see the PRI Program Associate in the following figure:

Figure –
The Program Associate Roles and
The Client System

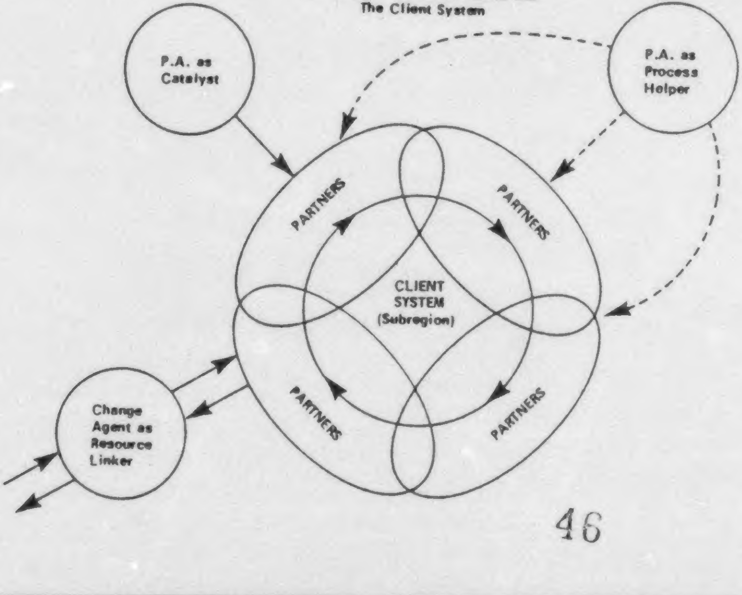
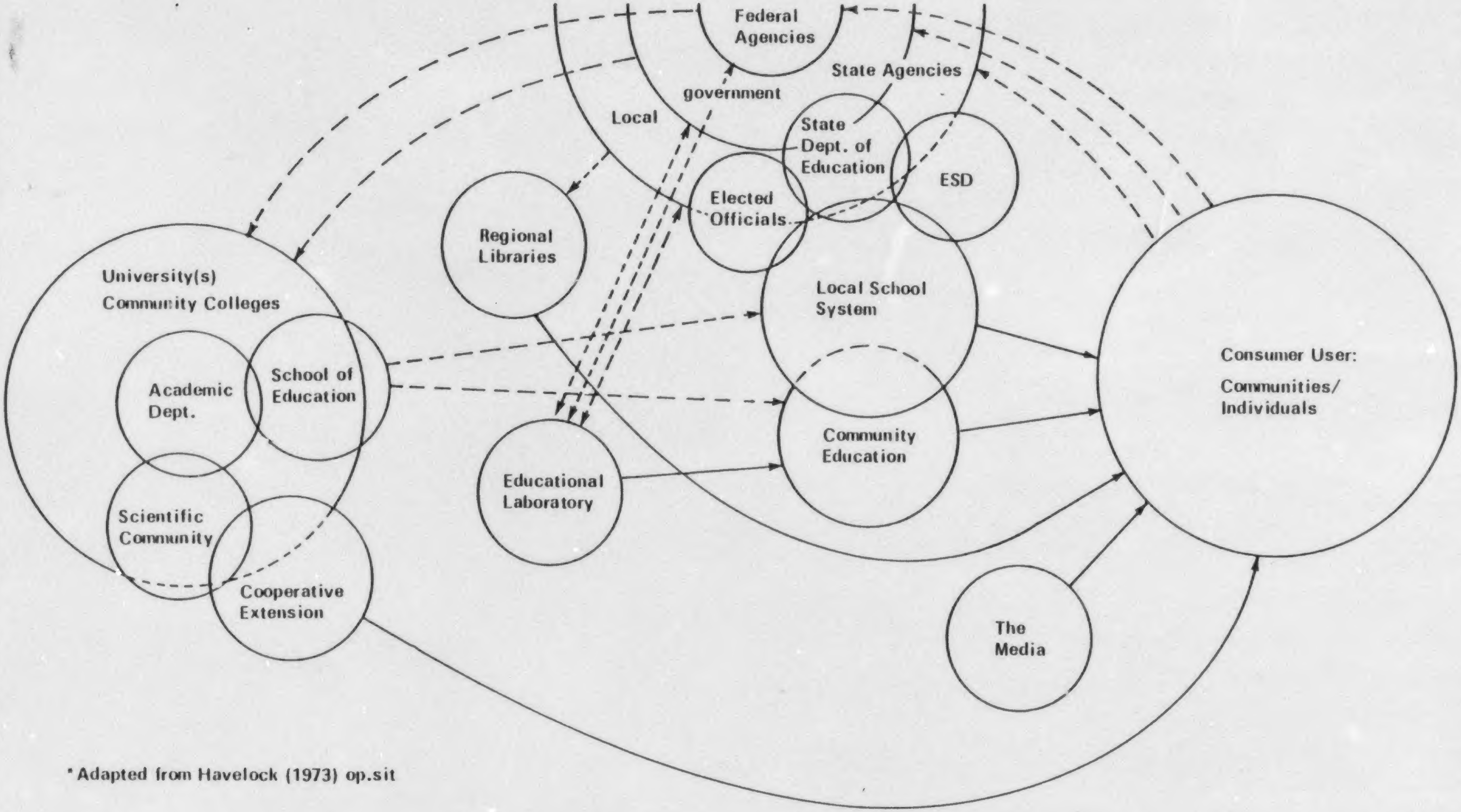

P.A. as Catalyst
P.A. as Process Helper
PARTNERS
PARTNERS
CLIENT SYSTEM (Subregion)
PARTNERS
PARTNERS
Change Agent as Resource Linker

Figure 2

An Interagency View of Critical Channels & Interfaces


Federal Agencies
State Agencies
government
Local
State Dept. of Education
ESD
Elected Officials
Regional Libraries
University(s) Community Colleges
Academic Dept.
School of Education
Scientific Community
Cooperative Extension
Local School System
Community Education
Educational Laboratory
Consumer User: Communities/ Individuals
The Media

*Adapted from Havelock (1973) op.sit

Additional hats worn by the associate include those of administrator and to some extent documentor. These can be seen as functions specifically targeted at running and managing the internal functioning of the PRI subregion organization. Although management styles were not addressed in the interview, all of the associates mentioned building a teaming relationship with those with whom they work. It would appear that those skills that facilitate the relationship between the associate and the partners are also viewed as important in determining management approaches.

Four other roles have been identified by Desmond M. Connor (1977)[7] and seem also to be supported by the program associates and assistants. They are:

- Facilitator
- Social Researcher
- Community Educator
- Publicist

Facilitator: The role of a facilitator is to make a number of key contacts in the community during the first months of start-up. This role of facilitator continues throughout the project, both internally as a team member and externally with the participant groups (e.g. partners and community groups. This role calls for knowledge, attitudes and skills usually developed through small group training and experience in the field of applied social psychology and human relations.

Social Researcher: Another essential task is to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the various subgroups and publics that constitute the total community. What values, goals, attitudes, beliefs and opinions prevail among

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[7] Connor, Desmond M., "Constructive Citizen Participation, The 1977 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, University Associates, La Jolla, California, 1977

each segment of the population? What do they know and believe about the project and the agency carrying it out? What are the leadership patterns, relevant organizations, and existing communication channels?

Community Educator: Connor talks about a mutual education process through which initially narrow perspectives are shared and then broadened to develop a larger shared frame of reference. "Within this process, creative alternatives are generated, evaluated and accepted."

Publicist: This role refers to the capacity to orchestrate both informal communication systems and releases using mass media. This is an essential skill for citizen involvement efforts.

From our interviews with the associates and assistants we think that the roles identified by Connor are complementary and in some cases subsummed by the roles identified by Havelock. At any rate, together they seem to accurately describe the complex role of the PRI program associate.

Congruence among the associates in role definition was also supported by a similar congruence when the associates (and the assistants) discussed the sequence of events for initiating, building and maintaining relationships within the PRI partnership. Here too, a comparison can be made with work done by Connor[7] when he describes a five step planning and participation process that we have summarized.

1. "Start-up (one month)

Connor sees the objectives of this stage as gaining a rapid appreciation of the character of the community and issues it faces; contacting key citizen leaders; detaining the design of the participation program;

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[7]

recruiting, selecting and orienting the staff and preparing an introductory brochure on the project.

2. "Collecting Information (three months)

During this stafe the change agent (associate) identifies the different publics and gains a comprehensive understanding of each -- values, goals, attitudes and understandings for the clients/citizenry; leadership and communication patterns; relevant organizations; reactions to the project, etc.

3."Mutual Education" (six months)

The objective of this stage is to ensure that participants share a full appreciation of the viewpoints amongst themselves. The change agent works to build an open sharing of information, and works to develop shared goals.

Connor identifies this stage as starting with "the public distribution of information: background data, the purpose of the study, alternative solutions already proposed, names of the public or project staff, and a response form. Individuals and groups are asked to review this material, raise questions about it, contribute further ideas for solving the issues at state, etc. Responses are then tabulated, summarized, distributed to the planning team, previewed by the project committee, and shared with the public. Constructive discussion is encouraged.

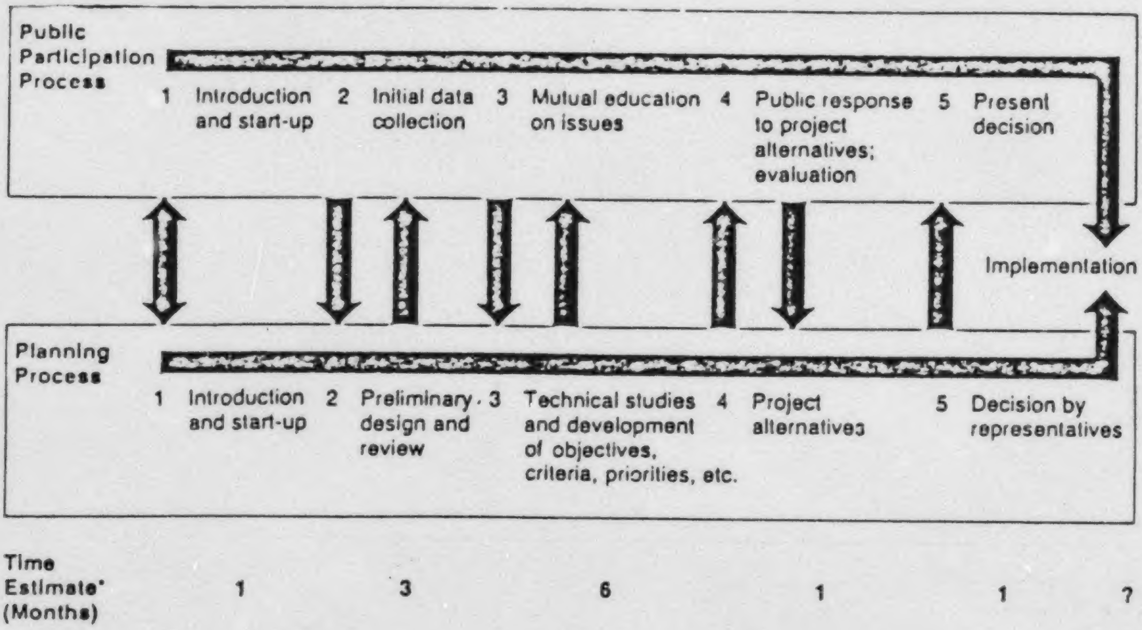
4. "Choice of Alternatives" (one month)

Connor: "With the help of citizen contributions, a number of technically sound methods and solutions are developed and evaluated in terms of the criteria put forward by citizens and planners. These alternatives are previewed and published as in Step 3 in an attempt to discover how socially acceptable and politically viable each solution is. The public is invited to respond, indicating first and second preferences. Individual and group responses are collected, tabulated by areas, summarized, combined with technical information in a final report, and passed on to the project committee and the public.

5. "Decision and Follow-up" (one month)

"Once the decision on the project is made by the elected representatives, the agency responsible communicates it, and the reasons underlying it, to all involved. Particular concern is given to those adversely affected by the decision. It is important that those who conributed to a project be kept informed of attempts toward implementation, or unnecessary complications may occur. An evaluation for the participation program is essential for the success of future activities."

Further elaboration of this five step involvement process is provided by the following diagram:


Public Participation Process
1 Introduction and start-up
2 Initial data collection
3 Mutual education on issues
4 Public response to project alternatives; evaluation
5 Present decision
Implementation
Planning Process
1 Introduction and start-up
2 Preliminary design and review
3 Technical studies and development of objectives, criteria, priorities, etc.
4 Project alternatives
5 Decision by representatives
Time Estimate* (Months)
1
3
6
1
1
?

---

[8] Connor, 1977, op.sit.

Using the procedure established by Connor, we will now propose a generic involvement procedure for PRI. We have tried to synthesize the response (from "first steps" and "ongoing tasks") from all respondants to develop this procedure.

Phase I - Orientation-Awareness: This phase is similar to the Start-up and Collecting Information phases outlined by Connor. We see both the associates and the partners having orientation and awareness needs. The associate needs to develop an appreciation of the character of the community(s) and the issues that face it. This can be done by identifying the different factions within the community, the different values, goals, and attitudes. The associate needs to familiarize her/himself with the patterns of leadership within the community and the formal and informal communication networks.

Associates said that they would have benefited from an introductory brochure on the project at this time. Whether or not they would have understood the project well enough to develop one is a question.

Part of this phase needs to be spent on orienting new partners and the community to the potential for PRI. It needs to be emphasized that this is a reciprocal process. Although associates may have plans and goals, they need to develop a teaming relation with the partners so that the partners in fact become the chief planners. (This differs from Connor's model, where the agent seems to be in a greater advocacy role). One associate said that this phase could last up to six months.

Phase II - Problem Identification: This phase incompasses much of what is covered in "Mutual Education" by Connor. The associate's goal is to help the partners to identify needs (it is important for the associate to help the partners involve the community in this needs assessment) and potential projects. This is where the process skills for group problem solving are crucial. So too, are skills in resource linkage. It may be that two partner agencies have identified similar needs and could have a collaborative effort for problem solving.

Phase III - Identification of Alternatives: After a project has been targeted it is the responsibility of the associate to link the various partners with resources. This was demonstrated in a project in the Eastern Region when a community identified some planning needs and the associate arranged for land use planners to work with the community. The planners help the community to see the range of possibilities for development that existed and were possible. It is important to share the possible alternatives with the public and involve the public in the decision making process. Connor recommends the public indicate first and second choices. Other involvement strategies engage the public more actually in decision making. One recommends that task forces made up of citizens representing different community fractions may be involved in identifying, critiquing, and choosing the appropriate alternatives. Most strategies emphasize the role of the associate as the person who insures that communication is clear and that all parties share the same expectations (process helper role).

Phase IV - Planning and Implementation: We have combined two distinct steps in a problem solving model into one phase -- planning for the project and implementing the project. In some cases different people may have a role in the planning, while not in the actual execution of a project. However,

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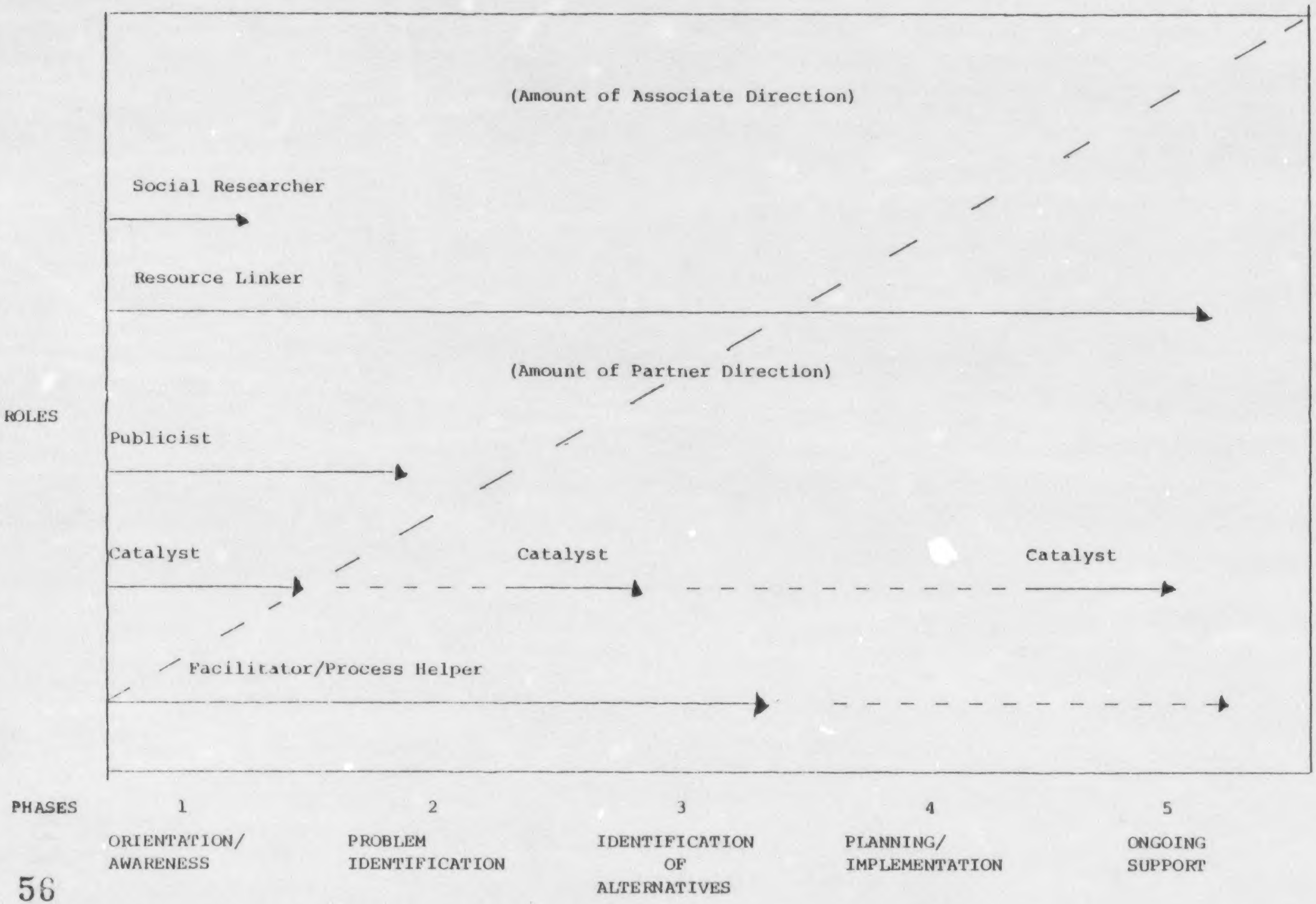
[9] Rural Futures Development Strategies, Northwest Regional Education Laboratory.

it is important at this point that any persons affected by a decision (implementers) have adequate input into the planning phase so that they have ownership of the project. Here the associate can monitor to see that key people are on planning committees. It is also important that the associate involves the media in a way that those people who were involved in the problem identification know what is going on during this phase.

Phase V - Ongoing Support: Simply because a project is started up is no indication of success. It has been found that most projects need adaptation or modification when installed. "The best laid plans, etc." Therefore, there needs to be some monitoring and feedback loop from people involved with the project and planners. The public too needs to be kept informed. Here the associate can serve as a monitor. "How are things going?" "Are other partners being kept informed?" "Do you need additional outside resources?"

We have devloped a diagram that shows the relationship between the roles of the associate and sequence of phases in a PRI project (see figure 4). Two things are important to note. Although the figure shows a linear development approach, the associate will be in several phases at once if different projects start up at different times, and as new partners join PRI.

It is also important for the associates to realize that while they have a very substantial role in the direction during the first phase, they need to diminish their out front role to accommodate the increasing involvement and ownership of the process by the partners (represented by dotted diagonal line).


(Amount of Associate Direction)
Social Researcher
Resource Linker
(Amount of Partner Direction)
ROLES
Publicist
Catalyst
Catalyst
Catalyst
Facilitator/Process Helper
PHASES
1
ORIENTATION/ AWARENESS
2
PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION
3
IDENTIFICATION OF ALTERNATIVES
4
PLANNING/ IMPLEMENTATION
5
ONGOING SUPPORT

——→ = Active Role

- - - - - -→ = Supporting Partners who have assumed this role

Conclusion

An important goal for PRI is the possible development of a new model for delivery of services by a Land Grant University. The role of the Field Program Associate seems crucial to this concept. Now that the Project has reached its midpoint, it seemed highly important to collect information directly from these Associates as a means of documenting the way way these roles were being performed. The purpose of this document is exactly that: to perceive the program associate role through the eyes of those staff members filling these positions, to examine their similarities and differences and to compare the results to references in the research literature.

In no way have we tried to suggest prescriptions for this important role but rather to record perceptions. We believe that during the final two years of PRI these roles will and should change as new experiences unfold. We think this would be a healthy sign if it should occur.

Finally, we trust that program associate's will continue to be supported and encouraged to view their roles in a flexible manner. Uniqueness should be considered a strength rather than a weakness and to contribute to the knowledge to be gained from the PRI program.

RESOURCES FOR FIELD PROGRAM ASSOCIATE

RESOURCES

This section has been divided into two parts: 1) a beginning collection of resources directed toward the personal and professional growth of the Field Program Associate, and 2) a variety of tools and techniques for use by the Field Program Associate as adapted from NWREL materials. Both sets of resources represent the beginnings of these collections. The Associates will have many other items they will wish to add to these resources as the project continues and their experiences expand. These preliminary collections will become more valuable if they will do so.

RESOURCES

Two types of resources for the Field Program Associate have been included in this section. The first, is a collection of materials from a wide variety of sources that will likely be of personal interest to the Associate. Their selection was admittedly arbitrary and have been included to provide general background information on certain aspects pertaining to the role of the Associate Obviously these items are not all inclusive and a much more comprehensive list could be developed. Recognizing that Field Program Associates have varied backgrounds of interests, experiences and training, these materials, too, will vary in their appeal and usefulness. No doubt each Associate will make a personal collection of resources that he/she finds most helpful.

The second set of resources are different. They are specific tools and techniques that may be found useful while performing in the role of Field Associate. These resources have been selected from a larger set of resources that were developed by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's Rural Education Program. Adaptations of them have been made to fit PRI purposes and they were reviewed by the Field Program Associates for possible use in the PRI Project.

Again, other tools and techniques are available in abundance. Field Associates may wish to add, modify or discard items in this set depending upon their personal style, experience and need. This is as it should be! The bibliography also suggests many other resources for use by the Field Associate.

Professional Resources for the Field Program Associate

1. "Seven Pure Strategies of Change" - Kurt E. Olmosk.

This brief article from the University Associates 1972 Handbook describes the basic strategies that are used by most individuals and groups to bring about change. A handy one-page chart summarizes them very neatly!

Community Development:

1. Thullen presents twelve descriptive approaches used in the field of Community Development, and fits them into three basic "strategy" alternatives he calls: (a) collaboration, (b) campaign and (c) contest. He concludes that there is no one right approach to development and approaches need ti be mixed.

2. "Community Development" - John Gisler, University of Utah

Gisler, a professor at University of Utah provided this digest to his community development students as a quick orientation to the field. It defines the process, shows how Community Development applies to professionals, identifies who community developers are and shows a problem solving method often employed by them.

3. An excerpt from "The Parameters of a Training Program for Community Development Change Agents" - Jeff Boyer 1972 NWREL

Boyer views Community development from his years in the Peace Corps as community Developer and later as trainer of volunteers. He suggests primary objectives for community development and outlines what he believes are the dimensions of community development.

to a resurgence of citizen vitality." In addition to definitions and assumptions, Connor describes a five step planning model and the roles required to carry it out.

5. 'What is Anticipatory Democracy" - Alvin Loffler - The Futurist - October 1975

Toffler, a futurist, believes that democratic political systems face two crucial problems today. 1) lack of future consciousness and 2) lack of citizen participation. He sees "anticipatory democracy" designed to cope with these two problems.

Collaboration:

1. "Agency Collaboration in Planning and Service" - Ed Moe 1973

A presentation by Moe outlining issues, conditions and underlying principles involved in collaboration. He cites research studies that have categorized collaboration into low, middle and high lebels of cooperation. An extensive bibliography is also included.

Planning:

1. An excerpt from "Creative Church Administration" Abingdon Press 1975

Four planning models, as used in church administration are shown. They are: planning from strength; by cliche; for tomorrow and, nonplanning. Though this appears to be an unusual reference it is stimulating and very adaptable to other circumstances.

2. "The Cookbook Collection" - Joe Luther and Others 1978

These Eastern Washington University staff members have proposed planning references basic libraries that cost 1) approximately $50.00 2) approximately $100.00 and 3) a complete working library for $300.00.

Cooperative Extension Service:

A bulletin that helps the "outsider" become acquainted with and learn how to use the Cooperative Extension Service.

4. "Community Development: What it is and what it is not" - Edward Moe, 1970

Moe presented this paper at University of Maryland in which he sees community development as a systems approach. He also concludes that community development is making education relevant to the problem we now confront.

Change Agent:

1. An excerpt from the RFD Process Facilitators Manual - NWREL 1976

The RFD Process Facilitator is described as performing in at least roles: consultant, process helper, catalyst and solution giver. Characteristics of the process facilitator role are shown concluding with specific goals for the process facilitator.

2. Another excerpt from "The Parameters of a Training Program for Community Development Change Agents" - Jeff Boyer 1972 NWREL

Boyer, from his Peace Corps experiences suggests appropriate behaviors for community development change agents. He sees the change agent needing to create systematic linkages between the agent and the community which is the target of the effort. Based on Peace Corps work, Boyer proposes 20 specific areas of concern that the community development worker must address. He sees communication as the single most important kind of action in which the change agent will engage.

3. "Rules of Thumb for Change Agents" - Herbert A. Shepherd

Aphorisms in the form of eight rules are proposed here by Shepherd. They provide basic concerns for the change agent to think about!

Citizen Involvement/Participation:

1. Another excerpt from a speech by Ed Moe, entitled:"Citizen Participation is the Key" USDA

Moe becomes quite specific in suggesting what individuals and agencies can do to increase citizen participation. He would like to see a new and more powerful partnership between public and private agencies and citizens established.

2. "Process Before Program: A Recipe for Community Involvement" - Lee Green NWREL

Five basic principles of successful citizen participation are outlined which would include citizens in planning, goal setting, program building and evaluation. These principles include: ownership by citizens, skill training for participants, recognition of the uniqueness of each situation, building and maintaining wide representation and neutral facilitation. While this article is directed toward Community Education, the principles seem to apply to many other areas of concern.

3. A chart excerpted from"Effective Citizen Participation in Transportation Planning: Volume I, US Dept. of Transportation W.D.C. 1976

Over thirty-five specific citizen participation techniques are listed under six broad categories. They represent all known techniques that have been employed with citizen groups. The reference book itself describes each of these in detail showing strengths and weaknesses of each technique costs involved, etc.

4. "Constructive Citizen Participation" - Desmond M. Connor University Associates 1977 Handbook

Connor concludes that "the training profession now has a unique opportunity to contribute not only to staff development and organizational effectiveness, but

SEVEN PURE STRATEGIES OF CHANGE

Kurt E. Olmosk

In recent months I have become increasingly aware that various individuals and groups approach the problem of change in various ways. There tends, however, to be a certain amount of consistency in the strategies employed within one group or by one individual over time.

This paper is an attempt to describe the various approaches I see being used most often. It is by no means an all inclusive list of strategies currently in use or theoretically possible. It is an attempt, however, to describe some of the more prevalent strategies in some detail.

I first began thinking about the various strategies used to bring about change, while working with a group in Kansas City. This particular group described their purpose as an attempt to increase contact between blacks and whites and to increase awareness of the racial problems facing the city and country. This was to be done through reading, study, and discussion in an atmosphere which would encourage frank and open examination of feelings and prejudices as well as facts. As I worked with this group, it became clear that they were following a strategy similar to that used by many churches and other volunteer organizations. I call this approach the Fellowship Strategy.

This strategy, and seven others, are described on the following pages. They are summarized in the table at the end of this article. The order in which they are presented is not meant to signify either their relative importance or frequency of use.

FELLOWSHIP STRATEGY

Simply stated, the assumption underlying this model seems to be, "If we have good, warm interpersonal relations, all other problems will be minor." Great emphasis is placed on getting to know and like each other. For this reason, it is not unusual for groups using this model to sponsor discussion groups, group dinners, card parties, and other social events which will bring everyone together.

This strategy places strong emphasis on treating everyone equally. This is often interpreted as needing to treat everyone the same way. Everyone must be accepted into membership, no one is turned away. When questions of choice or decision-making must be faced, everyone is allowed to have his say and all opinions are to be weighed equally. No fact, feeling, opinion, or theory is to be considered inherently superior to any other. Arguments are few and confusing since conflict is generally suppressed and avoided.

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Groups which tend to use this strategy also tend to be composed of individuals who have emotional needs for warmth, love, and trust in their fellow man. Much of this strategy is geared to satisfying these needs. Most of the discussions, dinners, and parties are light and pleasant with a minimum of conflict. They are designed to foster feelings of warmth and goodwill among the participants.

Groups which use this approach are fairly successful in gaining members initially and often they are able to mobilize a great deal of initial energy. They give people something to belong to. For many people, this is extremely valuable and may sustain a group for some time even though its goals are unclear and its concrete accomplishments are few. In fact, this initial mobilization of energy and commitment is what the fellowship strategy seems to do best.

However, groups which employ the Fellowship approach as a primary strategy tend to face some chronic problems. Since much of the initial commitment is to individuals, rather than to ideas or projects, the group often begins to feel directionless. It has trouble stating what it is really trying to do. With the added strong emphasis on warm feelings and treating everyone equally, it often becomes virtually impossible to set priorities. There is bound to be someone who does not entirely agree with any decision which is made. And, since everyone must be heard and no one must be unhappy, one person can immobilize the whole group.

For these same reasons, the group often has trouble implementing any decisions it is able to make. The trouble may take several forms. Being unable to face conflict, the group often makes unrealistic plans. Because the emphasis is primarily on keeping everyone happy, questions of economics, politics, or engineering feasibility are often minimized. An example of this is the fact that many churches have difficulty remaining financially solvent. Yet unless this is done, plans may have to be changed or the church dissolved.

As plans are ignored or changed, it becomes increasingly difficult for groups using this strategy to maintain the commitment of their members. The feeling begins to grow that the group is floundering, that it isn't doing anything, and that it is a waste of time. At this point, old members begin to leave and the group can only survive by finding new members who need to belong to something.

As I have implied above, groups using this strategy tend to suppress certain questions from their members. These are questions of individual competence and of individual difference which would threaten the norm that all people are equal and that they should all be treated in the same way. They also suppress the question, "What's in it for me?" This last question is often interpreted as "You don't trust us (the group)." If the group cannot find a way to face these questions, it is usually short lived.

In my experience, the Fellowship strategy is most often used by churches and other voluntary groups which have few financial or physical resources with which to reward or punish behavior of members.

POLITICAL STRATEGY

The assumption underlying this approach can be stated as follows, "If all the 'really' influential people agree that something should be done, it will be done." Emphasis is placed on finding and understanding the power structure that must be dealt with. This power structure usually includes not only the formal, recognized leaders, but the informal unofficial leaders as well. Much of the work done using this strategy is done informally on the basis of one-to-one relationships among these leaders.

This strategy emphasizes the identification and influencing of those individuals who seem to be most able to make decisions and have them carried out. It generally focuses on those men who are the most respected and have the largest constituency in a given area. Within this strategy, influence is based on the level and breadth of one's perceived power and on one's

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ability to bargain or work with other influential people to achieve goals valued by one's constituency.

The groups which use the political approach as a primary strategy seldom believe that all men are really equal or the same. They often view individual differences as unimportant unless these differences relate directly to power. The primary emotional needs of these groups seems to be for control and attention. Much of the effort expended in these groups goes toward seeing that decisions which are made are favorable to them, and that people know they were influential in making the decision.

Groups which use this approach are often fairly good at getting decisions implemented once they are made. Because so much energy is expended on getting influential people involved initially, once a decision is made it is often simply a matter of carrying it out. This mobilization of power and the implementation of decisions is the area in which this approach seems to work best.

However, over time, groups which rely primarily on the political strategy face a variety of chronic problems. Since influence is defined as being able to get decisions made which are beneficial to one's-self and one's constituency, a few adverse decisions may severely limit one's influence and completely change the power structure. It is often a fairly unstable system with a continual shifting of positions.

This shifting of positions leads to another and related problem, that of maintaining credibility. With the constant bargaining and compromising which this approach requires, it is often difficult to remain consistent in one's actions and to fulfill all of the promises made to one's constituency. Over time this can lead to a loss of faith by one's constituency and a corresponding loss of power and influence for the leader.

Finally, this approach often leads to backlash by the wider public and by individuals with opposing constituencies. Any decision is bound to be unpopular with some people and if enough decisions are made which they don't like they may organize their own power group to counter those making unpopular decisions.

People using this strategy often have trouble dealing with questions concerning value systems and loyalty. When compromise is called for, it is often hard to draw the line between decisions which are within the bounds of acceptability to one's own value system and to one's constituency, and decisions which are the result of short term pressures.

ECONOMIC STRATEGY

The underlying assumption for this approach is "If we have enough money or material wealth, we can buy anything or any change we want." The emphasis in this approach is on acquiring, or at least having influence over, all forms of material goods. These might include money, land, stocks, bonds, or any other tradeable commodity. This strategy is widely used in the United States and the Western World.

Inclusion into a group using this approach is usually based upon possession or control of marketable resources. Influence within the group is based on perceived wealth. The more money you have, the more people are willing to listen to you.

Most of the decisions made by the group are heavily, if not completely, influenced by questions of profitability as measured by an increase in tangible assets. The approach is highly rational and all people are assumed to behave more or less rationally from economic motives. Groups using this strategy often evidence strong emotional needs for control and rationality in all of their dealings.

The economic strategy works well in the United States. With the Puritan ethic still strongly held by many people, material wealth is not only a means of making life more comfortable, but is also a positive sign of talent and being one of the chosen. As long as the money holds out, this strategy is usually able to get decisions implemented once they are made.

This strategy does have some drawbacks, however. As Herzberg (1966) pointed out, money and material rewards are only temporary satisfiers. When people have been paid to make changes, they are satisfied for a while, but sooner or later they want more rewards. In order to maintain a change, it may be necessary to keep paying for it indefinitely.

This is related to a second problem in using this strategy. Few individuals or groups have unlimited resources. Some things or changes may simply be too expensive to buy given the resources available. There is often no way to significantly increase the available resources in the short run.

As with all other strategies, this one suppresses certain questions in its pure form. The most significant of these is "Is the practice ethical?" Since this is a somewhat emotional and philosophical question, it can not be answered within a strictly logical economic framework. This strategy also suppresses or ignores all questions which can not be answered in terms of profit or loss. These include most questions dealing with feelings of people.

As might be guessed, this strategy is most often used by corporations or the very rich. It is, however, beginning to be used by other groups such as the poor in Operation Breadbasket.

ACADEMIC STRATEGY

The academic strategy makes the assumption that "People are rational. If you present enough facts to enough people, people will make the changes required." To this end, individuals and groups adopting this strategy undertake an unending series of studies and produce thousands of pages of written reports each year.

Membership in groups using this strategy is based primarily on the possession of knowledge in a given area, or the desire to acquire such knowledge. Leadership and influence within the group is generally dependent upon the degree to which the individual is perceived to possess specialized knowledge, i. e., the degree to which he is seen as being an expert. The newcomer to the field is generally considered to have little to contribute to the group while the man with a Ph.D. or many years of specialized study is listened to closely.

People using this strategy tend to approach most problems, and the world in general, in a detached, analytical way. Their primary emotional needs appear to be for rationality and autonomy. People using this approach as a primary strategy often pride themselves on being disinterested observers or researchers of the world around them.

This approach is very useful in some cases. It often produces much relevant information and makes it available to people considering change. It may point out opportunities or consequences of action which would not be considered otherwise. It may also point out the cause of problems so that they may be corrected.

The academic strategy does not, however, have a very good record when it comes to actually bringing about change. There are several reasons for this. Because this approach emphasizes detached and disinterested study, it is often difficult to get people interested in the findings later. Only the researcher has been involved in the study during most of the time prior to publication so only he feels committed to the findings. The time and effort required to read and digest a complex report just does not seem worth it to most people. Without reading the complete report most people have trouble interpreting or believing the results of the study.

The emphasis on being a disinterested observer also makes it very difficult for the researcher to mobilize the energy and resources to implement the findings. For many academically oriented people, the emphasis on being a disinterested observer makes it hard to take an advocacy position on almost anything. Therefore, unless someone else becomes interested in the results of a study, no action will be taken on the findings.

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There is one further problem with using the academic strategy to solve most problems, it is time consuming. It takes time to do studies and to write reports. Unless the problem being studied is fairly stable, the situation which faces the decision maker when the report is finished, may not be the same one that existed when the study began. This is sometimes the excuse given for not implementing findings, occasionally with justification.

The emphasis on rationality and being a disinterested observer which this strategy requires, makes it very difficult for people using it to answer several questions. One of the most prominent of these is "How should the results be used?" Most academically oriented individuals feel this question is up to other people to answer.

A second but related question that often goes unanswered by the researcher is, "How do I feel about the results?" The emphasis on rationality blocks direct examination of this question.

My experience would indicate that this strategy is likely to be used by people in some positions more often than by people in others. This approach to change is often used by people who are outside the system they hope to effect. For instance, this approach is particularly popular with many consultants and people in staff positions (as opposed to line positions).

ENGINEERING STRATEGY

This strategy is particularly interesting because it tries to bring about change in individual behavior without dealing with people directly. The apparent underlying assumption can be stated as "If the environment or surroundings change enough, people will have to change also." For this reason, much time may be spent studying the work situation, the classroom, or the ghetto street from the standpoint of physical layout, required or permitted interaction patterns, and role descriptions.

Groups which approach change in this way often recruit their members on the basis of the technical skills the individual possesses. The group may look for a systems analyst, an engineer, or a management specialist in order to grow. Group needs are often defined in terms of technical skills and these are considered more important than interpersonal style.

Within the group, influence is based on the perceived level of the particular technical skills required at the time. Outside the group, however, influence is exerted primarily by changing the structure or the environment of given tasks or individuals. For example, the assembly line may be speeded up in order to get workers to produce more. Or, departments may be reorganized and tasks redefined in order to break up troublesome cliques.

Basic to this strategy is the need for rationality. The emotional side of human beings gets in the way and is suppressed whenever possible. Within this focus on rationality, there is a strong emphasis on task relevance. Data and decisions are evaluated primarily on the basis of these criteria. If the information or decision does not help to get the task done, it is irrelevant.

Because of its strong emphasis on being aware of the structural aspects of problems, this approach often leads to considerable awareness of the environment in which a group works. This may be particularly helpful in highly unstable situations, since new developments and information are discovered quickly. Because many management problems are problems of information flow, this approach may also produce results when reorganization and redefinition of tasks results in new and shorter communication links.

Although this strategy does get results in some situations, it also runs into some typical problems. Management literature is full of studies and articles concerning ways to get people to accept change. Since people are often treated like objects or machines when problems are being analyzed, they are often resistent to changes this approach would indicate as desirable. The people most directly effected often do not feel committed to the change or do not understand it. Since people are assumed to be totally rational, their feelings are being ignored, and thus can not be talked about.

There are several other problems which are often encountered by groups using this strategy. First, it is often time consuming. While changes in the surrounding world may be detected quickly, analysis and decisions based on these changes take time to implement. Second, structural or environmental changes often produce unexpected results. A department which is reorganized in order to break up troublesome cliques may also lose the close working relationships which made it reasonably efficient. Third, in most organizations, there are very few people who have a broad enough perspective and enough power and influence to bring about widespread structural change. For this reason, this strategy is most often used by fairly high level management in an organization.

The question most often ignored or suppressed by groups using this strategy is "How will people feel about the change?" Because of the emphasis on rationality and efficiency which is inherent in this strategy, this question is usually considered to be of little importance.

MILITARY STRATEGY

This approach to change is based on the use of physical force to change behavior. The name Military has been given this approach because it seemed to convey the right connotation to most people, not because the military is the sole user of this approach. In various forms, this approach is also used by many police departments, 'revolutionary' student groups, and some teachers.

The basic assumption behind this approach can be stated as "People react to real threats. If we possess enough physical force, we can make people do anything." To this end, considerable time is spent in learning to use weapons and to fight. Priorities may also be given to physical conditioning, strength, and agility.

Membership in groups using this approach is often determined on the basis of the possession of physical power, and willingness to submit to discipline. Both within the group, and in its dealings with the surrounding world, influence is exerted primarily through the fear of authority and the threat of punishment. Even though the iron fist is hidden in a velvet glove, there is never any doubt that the iron fist exists and can be used.

Much of the perceptual approach used by groups using this strategy is determined by the emotional needs of the members for control, status, and security. Out of these needs often grows a tendency to see most problems and relationships in terms of power, authority, threat, and exploitation.

One of the main strengths of this approach is that it is often good at keeping order. If the threats are severe enough, most people are reluctant to misbehave and will try to find ways of getting what they want within the existing system.

One of the most severe handicaps of this approach is that once resorted to, the 'enforcer' can never relax. As soon as he does, the change that is being imposed will disappear.

A second problem is that force is often met with force. Resorting to the use of force often starts an ever escalating cycle of violence. People resist having change imposed on them and whenever possible will rebel.

When this approach is used, many moral questions tend to be ignored by most of the group. The average member seldom asks who should "really" make decisions. He 'knows' that the answer is "Those in authority". Questions of right and wrong are also difficult to face since in a very real sense "Might makes right" within this approach.

CONFRONTATION STRATEGY

This approach to change is based on the assumption that if you can mobilize enough anger in enough people and force them to look at the problems around them the required changes will be made. From this basic assumption, it is clear that this strategy is a high conflict strategy.

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However, as it is being thought of here, the strategy stresses non-violent argument as opposed to the actual use of physical force.

Membership in groups using this approach to change is often based on one's ability to deal with and use conflict in ways that further the goals of the group. Influence both within and outside the group is based primarily on one's ability to argue one's point and to deal with conflict short of coming to blows. Most of the early civil rights groups and student groups made heavy use of this approach to bring about change.

As I think of the groups that use this approach, it appears that they base much of their argument on a very narrow definition of the "Truth". Much of their perceptual approach is in terms of highly idealized moral arguments. Out of this idealized morality often come strong emotional needs to express one's anger, sense of indignation, and sense of self. It is out of these needs that the confrontation with other "offending" groups is generated.

This approach to change has several strengths. When a group adopts this approach it is usually fairly clear to the "opponents" that they will need to make some kind of answer before the confronting group will go away. To this extent, this approach often does get people to look at problems they would rather not acknowledge. Secondly, and sometimes more importantly, this approach gains attention and publicity in the larger community. It is very hard to ignore a thousand people marching down Main Street. If the cause for which these people are marching catches on, the increased pressure on the decision makers to do something may bring about changes where all other approaches have failed.

This approach to change also has several major drawbacks. While it often does gain attention and point out problems, this approach, when used exclusively, often fails to suggest solutions. Because many of the people using this approach have little power to make changes themselves, and because people join the protest movements for such a wide variety of reasons, it is often difficult to get any agreement on alternatives or solutions to the problems.

Secondly, because this approach is based on the use of conflict, it often polarizes people and creates considerable backlash. When students stage a sit-in in the dean's office, he often becomes determined not to give in to this type of pressure. If this is the second or third group of students who has tried to use this strategy, he may feel he has no choice but to call in the police. When this happens, even students with legitimate complaints may have trouble getting a hearing.

As the confrontation approach to change escalates, one question tends to get suppressed. "Is there anything in the opponent's argument that is worthwhile?" To suggest that the opponents might be right about some things is often close to heresy and the person who makes that kind of suggestion is often treated accordingly.

This approach to change has most often been used by students and the poor. These groups often feel that they have no other way to make themselves heard.

APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE MODEL

In recent years many people have been increasingly vocal in their assertion that most problems are extremely complex. This is the basic assumption in the Applied Behavioral Science Model. Simply stated, this assumption is "Most problems are complex and overdetermined. A combination of approaches is usually required to achieve a solution."

Groups using this approach usually argue that inclusion into membership should be based on the effect the issues under consideration will have on people. As many people as possible, who will be effected by the decision, should be included in making the decision. Within the group, influence is based on knowledge and the degree to which the decision will effect the individual. Ideally, the individual with the most knowledge about a given problem and/or the person most effected by the decision should have the most influence in the group when the decision is being considered. Given this outlook, it also follows that leadership of the group should change as the problem being considered changes.

The perceptual approach to the world by groups using this approach is often very eclectic. Any information or theory which will help to understand the situation and reach a decision is used. In its purest form, the emotional needs of members seem to be primarily for emotional and intellectual integration. Attempts are made to keep from fragmenting one's life and approach to problems.

This broad based approach to problems, along with a situation centered focus, is the major strength of this model. Very often more information is considered and utilized in reaching decisions by groups employing this approach, than by groups using most of the other approaches.

This approach does have some drawbacks, however. One of the biggest is simply making itself understood. Because it is so eclectic and situation centered, people using it often have difficulty answering what appear to be simple questions. When considering the question of how to motivate workers, for instance, the work situation, task requirements, social needs of workers, value systems of everyone involved, work precedents and many other factors need to be looked at. Any answer which considers all these factors is likely to be long, complex, and somewhat confusing.

Second, because each situation is somewhat different than every other, people using this approach may appear to be somewhat inconsistent. A slight change in one of the variables under consideration, may change the recommended solution completely. To the outsider, it may appear that the question is the same but only the answer has changed.

The question that is most often suppressed or ignored by people using this approach is "How should I 'really' do it?" This question just can not be answered within this approach since the assumption is made that there is no one best way to solve any problem.

SUMMARY

In the preceding pages, I have tried to describe several of the strategies I have seen used most often by groups and individuals to bring about change. I have described each of these as a pure strategy. In practice, these are seldom used as pure approaches. Rather, one strategy may predominate with modifications based on one or two of the other approaches.

My main purpose here has been to describe each strategy in as much detail as possible with the hope that if people can recognize the strategy being used, and the underlying assumptions, approaches which are appropriate to the situation can be chosen.

All of the strategies described in the preceding pages are summarized in the following table.

Frederick Herzberg. *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland: World, 1966.

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	FELLOWSHIP	POLITICAL
Basic Assumption	If we have good warm interpersonal relations, all other problems will be minor	If all the really influential people agree to do something, it will be done
Inclusion	Get everybody in	Get everyone in who possesses power
Influence	Everybody equal	Based on level and breadth of perceived power
Perceptual Approach	Accepts all. Shuts out none	Stereotype. Ignore individual differences unless they relate to power
Emotional Needs	Warmth, love and trust	Control and attention
Good at	Mobilizing initial energy	Mobilizing power. Implementing decisions once made
Chronic Problems	Financial support. Actual implementation of decisions. Maintaining long run commitment	Maintaining credibility. Fighting backlash
Questions suppressed	What's in it for me? Competence. Individual difference.	Is my action consistent with my value system?
Most often used by	Churches. Volunteer organizations. Groups with limited power.	Those already in power

	ECONOMIC	ACADEMIC
Basic Assumption	If we have enough money or material wealth, we can buy anything or any change we want.	People are rational. If you present enough facts to people, they will change
Inclusion	Based on possession of marketable resources	Based on possession of knowledge and facts
Influence	Based on perceived wealth	Based on specialized knowledge and expertise
Perceptual Approach	Materialistic	Analytical and detached
Emotional Needs	Control and rationality	Autonomy and rationality
Good at	Implementing decisions once made	Finding causes. Presenting relevant information
Chronic problems	Maintaining change and/or satisfaction. Few people or groups have unlimited resources	Implementing findings. Mobilizing energy. Getting people to pay attention or read reports. Time consuming.
Questions suppressed	Is it ethical? Most feelings	How do I feel about results? How should results be used?
Most often used by	Corporations. The very wealthy	Outsiders. People in staff positions.

	ENGINEERING	CONFRONTATION
Basic assumptions	If the environment or surroundings change, people have to change	If we can mobilize enough anger and force people to look at problems around us, the required changes will be made
Inclusion	Based on possession of technical skills	Based on ability to deal with and use conflict
Influence	By changing structure or task environment	By non-violent argument
Perceptual approach	Task relevance and rationality	Narrow belief in "Truth"
Emotional needs	Rationality, clarity and structure	Expression of anger. Expression of self
Good at	Being aware of surroundings and/or environment	Forcing people to look at issues they may not want to acknowledge. Gaining attention and publicity
Chronic problems	Gaining acceptance for change. Dealing with unexpected consequences. Time consuming. Few people can control structure.	Finding alternatives. Dealing with backlash
Questions suppressed	How will people feel about it?	Is anything in opponents argument worthwhile?
Most often used by	Top management	Revolutionary students. The poor Unions.

	MILITARY	APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE
Basic assumption	If we possess enough physical force, we can make people do anything.	Most problems are complex and overdetermined. A combination of approaches is usually required.
Inclusion	Based on possession of physical power	Based on including as many of those effected as possible
Influence	By fear of authority and threat of punishment	Based on knowledge and the degree to which the decisions will effect them
Perceptual approach	Exploit for use of power structure	Ecclectic but situation centered
Emotional needs	Control, status and security	Emotional and intellectual integration
Good at	Keeping order	Using as much information as possible
Chronic problems	Rebellion. Can never relax.	Making itself understood. Not appearing "wishy-washy".
Question suppressed	Who should "really" make decisions? Is it "right"?	How should I "really" do it? Do you really know what you are doing?
Most often used by	Military. Police. "Weathermen"	Human relations consultants, organization development consultants

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ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT[1]

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INTRODUCTION

Not too long ago, a predominant approach to Community Development existed. This approach was an accepted way for working with and in communities. Very few alternative approaches were considered or utilized by community development workers.

Essentially, the Community Development approach that was prevalent in the past emphasized group decisions and needed actions which resulted from community consensus, collaboration, and cooperation. It was felt that if these conditions were not present, meaningful community change or development was not possible. It was an approach which promoted gradual changes in the community.

However, with the large number of people that have increasingly become involved in development activities within communities in the recent past, who have tried new and different approaches to this task, it has become apparent that there are different ways in which development can be brought about.

As new approaches to development evolved, two phenomena occurred. On the one hand, those who conceived of and implemented a new approach, would describe it as something else than Community Development. Their position was that Community Development was one approach to change, while theirs was a different approach that merited a different name -- since they didn't want their approach confused with what was known as Community Development. On the other hand, there were others who, using new alternatives to development, took the position that their new approach was really the right Community Development approach, and that other approaches were not community development. They felt that their way was the only way through which meaningful planned change could take place in communities.

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Today, through a combination of new available knowledge, new freedom to experiment and a willingness to consider alternatives, a welcome state of change in the outlook of people concerning alternatives to development exists. There are a growing number of people who feel that there are valid different approaches to development, that none of them is the right approach under all circumstances, and that all can be classified as Community Development. There is also a growing belief that it is important, for those who are engaged in development efforts, to know about the different approaches that can be used in different situations, and to know how to use different approaches whenever and wherever appropriate.

The purposes for this presentation are for development agency staff:

1. To understand the existence of different approaches to development;
2. To understand how different approaches have been used: and
3. To gain insights on their and their agency's approaches, for more effective development efforts.

In this presentation, "approaches" will be discussed from two directions. First, some of the great variety of approaches that have been developed and used in the relatively recent past will be described. They will be described from which basis they developed and the kind of rationale they have employed.

Next, alternative approaches from a more abstract and theoretical perspective -- basically using the typology of three "strategies" for social change at the community level, developed by Roland Warren, will be examined.

Finally, these two perspectives will be merged into an overall framework. Hopefully, this framework can be a meaningful tool for those engaged in development efforts.

A DESCRIPTION OF DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT

During the past 20-30 years, a great variety of approaches to development have emerged. Some were identified as "community development," and for some, new names were coined. However, if proprietary interests are put aside, it becomes apparent that what all of these approaches have in common is a desire to improve the quality of life in communities.

For discussion purposes, a series of alternatives will be described. The assumption is that all are alternative approaches to community development. All use the community problem solving process to one extent or another and all are aimed at improving communities. Each approach is given a descriptive name or title -- to better illustrate it. Most of the titles were made up, but some have been borrowed from other sources.

The different approaches will be discussed in the general order they evolved. However, before they are described, a few brief words of caution are in order. Each described approach is highly simplified, in some cases even oversimplified. This was done in order to make a point. In addition, there is also a certain amount of overlapping among these categories. They were not meant to be mutually exclusive, but descriptive of narrow alternatives, again, in order to make a point. Finally, it must be remembered that this classification is purely descriptive. Later in the presentation, these approaches will be fitted into a more rational framework which is based on theory.

It would help, as each approach is described, to think about examples from personal experiences.

1. The "Community" Approach

This is one approach that has been borrowed, largely from Lee J. Cary, who developed it in a recent publication entitled, "Approaches to Community Development."

This approach was picked first, because it represents the "original" approach which used to be equated with Community Development for a long time. Though it is not the exclusive approach any longer, it is still an approach which is widely used here in the United States and in many parts of the world.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- work within a well-defined "community" (usually a small one)
- holistic approach to community change
- popular or broad based participation by most of the community residents
- high emphasis on people involvement
- high emphasis on consensus and agreement on action
- high emphasis on internal communication within the community
- attempts to involve all aspects and segments of the community in concert toward common goals.

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- One has to work with the total community, otherwise change will not be significant.

- High participation by all elements of the community contribute to the identification of common needs, common goals, and common strategies for dealing with them.
- It is only when the whole community is involved that progress can be made toward real improvement.

c. Some examples:

- Cooperative Extension C.D. efforts in some states
- Community Development Clubs or organizations in several states
- Community Development efforts in developing countries
- State sponsored Community Improvement programs

2. The "Education" Approach

This approach is closely related to the first one. It is also an approach that has been practiced for a long time.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Educational programs for community leaders and citizens on community problems and issues
- Seminars, workshops for community decision-makers
- Information systems that "feed" information and data about community problems and issues to community leaders and citizens

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- If only people (or their leaders) were educated enough and had enough knowledge about: what the issues and problems of the community are; what the causes of these problems and issues are; what kind of alternative solutions are available for dealing with the problems and issues; what resources are available; then these people would be able to solve all their community problems.

- All people are rational and if they were only educated enough, or have enough knowledge, they would be able to approach all community problems in a rational way and solve them.

c. Some examples:

- Cooperative Extension programs in most states
- Other University Extension and Adult Education programs
- Community College programs in some states
- League of Women Voters programs

3. The "Human Resource Development" Approach

This has been a more recent approach, but again it has been closely related to the past two approaches.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- High emphasis on individual development
- Focus is on people and their ability to function within group situations
- High emphasis on self-help and "grass roots"
- Low emphasis on the physical, biological environment
- Low emphasis on visible outcome or output

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- Communities are made up of people
- Most people don't have the knowledge and skills for working effectively within their communities
- To help communities, we must therefore help people develop to their full potential.
- If we help people develop to their full potential, we will then automatically help the community develop.

c. Some examples:

- Many Adult Education programs
- Some Extension programs
- Private group programs, such as foundation sponsored C.D. programs
- Some past OEO programs

4. The "Planning, Design and Architectural" Approach

This approach, though different from the previous ones, has also been around for some time. It still has many proponents, though less than it did in the near past. This category lumps several different approaches together because they are so similar in outlook and in the desired end results.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- A "Master Plan"
- Highly geared toward the improvement of the aesthetics of the community
- The interrelationship of space, volume, and design is highly important
- Low emphasis on people and their involvement
- Attempts to design physically beautiful and ecologically (natural ecology) sound communities
- Often highly technical in orientation

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- The architectural and design components of a community are highly important
- If only the community were "designed" better, most of our problems would go away, e.g. if the roads and streets were better designed we would not have traffic problems.

- If communities and people would only use consistent architectural design, and if our cities were made up of well-designed and beautiful buildings, parks, streets, etc., we would not have the urban problems we have today.
- If we only had a "master plan" that would show how everything should be, and then stick to it, we could deal with most of our problems.

c. Some examples:

- Official planning efforts in major cities and metropolitan areas
- Planning efforts in counties
- Planning efforts by consultants
- C.B.D. or Central Business District planning efforts, particularly Urban Renewal programs.

5. The "Community Facilities Improvement and Physical Development" Approach

This approach has been closely allied with the previous one, though it takes a somewhat different perspective on development. It is also more recent in origin.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Highly oriented toward "bricks and mortar"
- Very "action" oriented - visible action
- Usually technically oriented
- Low people orientation and involvement

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- The real problems of most communities are that they lack the proper facilities and services that the citizens need, e.g., water systems, sewers, solid waste disposal facilities, police, fire protection services, etc.

- If communities only had the facilities and services that people need, most of our communities would be in very good shape.

c. Some examples:

- Some Regional Planning and Development efforts
- Economic Development District and OEDP programs
- Resource Conservation and Development efforts
- Many Corps of Engineers programs
- USDA Rural Development programs
- Law Enforcement programs
- Regional Health programs

6. The "Economic Development" Approach

This approach is also more recent in origin than others, and it is closely related to the previous approaches. This approach has been widely used and advocated in this country and across the world in the past 30-40 years.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Economic plans
- High emphasis on industrial development
- High emphasis on job training programs - toward greater industrial and business development
- Emphasis on the development of new technology - in order to foster new industry
- Strategies for increasing population growth and decreasing population outmigration
- High emphasis on growth -- more, bigger, better

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- If only the economy of the community were developed and prosperous, all problems would take care of themselves.

- If everybody had a good paying job, our community would be in good shape.
- If we only had enough industries, or if we could attract more industries, our problems would disappear.
- Community development equals community growth equals economic growth equals population growth.
- If we could only increase our tax base, we could take care of most of our problems.

c. Some examples:

- Economic Development District programs
- Industrial Development Commission efforts
- Chamber of Commerce programs
- Multi-state regional efforts (e.g. Applachian, Upper Great Lakes, Four Corners, etc.)
- Foreign Aid programs

7. The "Regional Development" Approach

This is also a relatively recent approach to development, and is related to the past several approaches. It is an approach that is still gaining strength and is growing.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Multi-county or even multi-state programs
- Multi-jurisdictional programs -- or else
- Emphasis on economies of scale
- Emphasis on efficiency
- Emphasis on avoiding duplication of efforts
- High emphasis on rationality

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- Most community problems are too big to be solved by individual communities or political jurisdictions.
- Communities must work together to work on their mutual problems.
- If only communities and/or political jurisdictions would work together in harmony on their common problems and sharing their resources, we wouldn't have many problems.

c. Some examples:

- Regional Planning and Development programs, on sub-state basis.
- Multi-state regional efforts.
- Multi-jurisdictional contract arrangements.
- Councils of Government.
- Area comprehensive planning efforts.
- Some Resource Conservation and Development efforts.

8. The "Power Structure" Approach

This is a different approach from the ones already described. It has been around, in various forms, for about thirty years. Often it is not so much as an approach, as it is a state of mind or a philosophical foundation which governs the behavior of the community change agents as they pursue their approach to development. However, because in some instances it has very definitely been used as an approach to development, it has been included.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Work done "behind the scenes" - low visibility
- Low citizen participation
- Emphasis on involving only those "who count," or "who have power" or "who are important," or "who make most of the decisions anyway."

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- Most community decisions are made by a few powerful or influential individuals.
- Thus, if these can be identified and enlisted, then we can solve most of our community problems.
- There are only a few in each community who have the capacity for deciding what should be done to improve it.
- If we involve the right people, we wouldn't be "spinning our wheels" so much and would get some things done.

c. Some examples:

- Some Cooperative Extension efforts
- Some city, county, and other planning efforts

9. The "Helping the Disadvantaged" Approach

In some ways, this approach is the opposite of the one just described. It is, however, an approach that has come to the forefront only in the past 10 years or so. It seems to have peaked and is apparently declining at present.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Organization of the "poor," "disadvantaged," "people of limited resources," "minorities that have been oppressed," etc.
- Emphasis on self-help and "bootstrap" efforts - "We will go it alone -- just give us the means"
- Emphasis on local autonomy of programs that were designed to help the disadvantaged, and control of these programs by the disadvantaged.
- Highly "people" oriented.

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- Most of our community problems result from inequities of distribution of goods, services, and access to services within our communities.
- One is not really engaged in community development unless one is working on the problems of the disadvantaged sector in our communities -- because their problems are the key problems in our communities.
- If we could only solve the problems of our poor, disadvantaged and/or oppressed minorities, we would solve most of our problems.

c. Some examples:

- Many past O.E.O. and "War on Poverty" programs
- Many Social Services programs
- Model Cities programs
- "Bootstrap" programs and operations in neglected, isolated and depressed areas.

(A highly related approach, which merits special mention, and which has become more prevalent in recent years, has had the following premises:

- The only kind of valid community development efforts are those which try to attack urban and metropolitan problems, since it is here that most of our people live and here that we have the greatest problems.
- Most urban problems are a result of racial discrimination and oppression.
- Thus, community development programs, if they are to be effective and relevant, should be aimed at providing the blacks and other minorities in inner cities with economic, social and political power.

- Any other efforts cannot be considered valid community development efforts.)

10. The "Conflict" Approach

This approach to development is also relatively new. For the most part, it has only become visible as an approach in the last 10-15 years.

a. Some major elements to this approach:

- "Direct action" - sit ins - protest marches - and in some cases, even civic disobedience
- Organization of factions - of the aggrieved -- minorities -- the poor
- Sharp delineation of "sides" - polarization of communities
- Struggles for power or for changing institutions.

b. Some basic premises to this approach:

- It is useless to work "within" the system for the purposes of dealing with most community problems.
- Action is needed to "shake" the system, to make it respond.
- Drastic action is necessary to significantly change our society, so it can really deal with its major problems.
- Any other approach, which attempts to deal with the system, is a waste of time.
- The present "system" has not been able to deal with the serious problems society is confronted with, thus why use it?

c. Some examples:

- Some past O.E.O. and "War on Poverty" projects
- Many inner-city urban programs
- "Saul Alinski type" efforts
- Many "private" organizations working with racial or ethnic minorities, such as Black Panthers, Brown Berets, A.I.M., etc.

11. The "Radical Change" or "Reform" Approach

This is really a variant of the last mentioned approach. However, it seems to be an approach that is gaining some support recently. It deals with less open confrontation than the conflict approach, but is similar in its aims and assumptions. In some ways, it is an approach which has evolved from the "Conflict" approach - more sophisticated in its methods.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Organization of the aggrieved - minorities
- Acquisition of political power
- Attempts to take over established systems of decision-making
- Working mostly "within" the system - i.e., taking it over, or using it for own ends.

b. Some basic assumptions to this approach are:

- "We can have the power to do things, we just need to take it away from those who have it".
- The system is really not that bad, just had been misused or used inequitably, thus it needs to be reformed and redirected.
- Once those who have been mistreated by the system have taken on the power and reformed it, they can deal with the problems communities have been faced with.

c. Some examples:

- Some Community Action groups and programs
- Some Model Cities efforts

12. The "Revolution" or "Total Change" Approach

There is some doubt as to whether this approach should have been included in this discussion, but it is an approach that deserves some scrutiny.

First, because it does represent the other end of the continuum, at the opposite end to the approaches which attempt to work with and within our established society. Second, because this is an approach that seems to have gained a small but significant following in our country. This approach has been around for some time in many other parts of the world, but only now does there seem to be an element of acceptance of it, by a few, in this country.

a. Some major elements to this approach are:

- Revolution, whether by peaceful or forceful means
- A complete change in the way society is structured
- A complete change in the basic value systems governing society
- Idealism and dogmatism by its proponents, as well as great dedication
- Unwillingness by proponents to consider or discuss any other change approaches
- The "ends justify the means"
- Planned, aimed, and/or random violence.

b. Some basic premises to this approach are:

- Our society is completely "sick."
- Our society can never deal with its problems because it is, in itself, the cause of them.
- Thus we must completely change our society before we can adequately deal with our problems.
- Any other approach is a complete waste of time.

c. Some examples:

- Different revolutionary groups - usually small splinter groups.

These constitute twelve descriptive approaches. As can be seen, they are very simplistic descriptions and have only been elaborated on very briefly. They are also categories which were developed based on personal experience and knowledge. No doubt some other approaches have been missed, and that other people, with a different background and experience, could develop different sets of alternative approaches. However, it must be kept in mind that these were developed to illustrate, in a simplistic fashion, the great variety of approaches used in Community Development.

With this basic description of different approaches that can be identified in the field of community development, it now would be useful to turn to a different perspective on alternative approaches to development.

THREE BASIC ALTERNATIVE DEVELOPMENT APPROACHES

It is not too difficult to develop, on a purely descriptive basis, a number of different alternative approaches to development with some observation, experience and analysis. The question is though, whether it is possible to find a more fundamental system for classifying and ordering all the different kinds of ways that change agents approach development.

Such a system does exist, one that is relatively simple to understand and which makes a great deal of sense. In addition, it is a system well founded in social change theory. Namely, the system of classifying types of change strategies that Roland Warren developed in the first essay of his book, "Truth, Love and Social Change." The following discussion will thus be borrowing very heavily on his concepts and subject matter.

Basically, Roland Warren has been able to classify three major alternative approaches to development efforts. The three approaches are called: "Collaborative Strategies," "Campaign Strategies," and "Contest Strategies."

1. The "Collaborative Strategy" Alternative

This alternative approach to development is based on the assumption that substantial agreement exists between the change agent (party or parties who want to bring about a change) and the community on:

a - What is the situation in the community; and

b - The issue (an aspect or possibility of purposive change which is being actively considered) or issues that need to be addressed by the community.

A further assumption is that common values and interests between the proponents of change and the community do exist.

In other words, an "issue consensus" situation is present, - in which:

a - there is basic agreement as to the way an issue should be resolved, or

b - there is a good likelihood of reaching such an agreement once the issue is fully considered.

This state of "issue consensus" can arise out of common interests among the parties involved in the development efforts, based on common values, or, a convergence of interests on what needs to be done, even though the values of the different parties involved might be different.

The role of the change agent is not so much as that of proposing changes, but of helping the community reach a consensus about the issue and how to address it.

If there are differences, they are only minor -- based on not enough or the right kind of information. The assumption is that if all the parties concerned knew enough about the issue, and communicate well with each other, agreement will be reached.

This kind of an approach to development appeals to many people engaged in community development efforts. It appeals to them because there is no element of coersion, it is based on democratic ideals and is a process that should work among "rational" and "reasonable" people.

However, it is not always possible to find such basic agreement among the parties involved in development efforts, and thus other alternative approaches to development must be considered when differences do exist.

2. The "Campaign Strategy" Alternative

This approach to development is based on a situation where an "ISSUE DIFFERENCE" exists. That is, when at the time the development effort is proposed, there is:

a - a lack of agreement among the principal parties that an issue exists; or

b - a lack of agreement as to how an issue should be resolved.

However, under either situation, there is an assumption that agreement can eventually be reached.

This situation can arise when a change agent sees an issue, but the community does not recognize it, or when both the change agent and the community agree on the issue, but disagree on how to deal with it. From the change agent's perspective, he is dealing with apathy, in the first case, and opposition in the second case.

In this kind of a situation, the change agent's role revolved around attempts to:

a - persuade and convince the community that the issue he sees is really an issue; or,

b - persuade and convince the community that his means for addressing the issue are the right ones.

Persuasion can be accomplished in different ways:

a - "educational" campaigns, public relations efforts, obtaining endorsements, etc.;

b - applying subtle pressure to key individuals and groups for support; and/or,

c - offering various kinds of inducements or rewards to key individuals and groups, for going along with the proposals.

The objective of "campaign strategies" is to eventually obtain consensus - about the issue and means for dealing with it.

Again, however, situations in communities do exist, where there is little hope for obtaining consensus about the issues or how to deal with them, and again there is a need to consider another strategy for these situations.

3. The "Contest Strategy" Alternative

This alternative approach to development is based on a situation in which "ISSUE DISSENSUS" exists. In this situation, the two parties (change agent and target community) cannot agree at all about the issue or how to deal with it. This situation usually occurs when there are basic value and belief differences between the parties. When there are basic differences in the values and beliefs of two parties, then one party refuses to recognize the existence of an issue that the other party is attempting to deal with, or one party is absolutely opposed to the ways of dealing with an issue, that both parties agree do exist.

The role of the change agent is therefore that of a "contestant," in which he pursues his own goals in opposition to others in the community.

The contest role of the change agent can be played in different ways:

a - Confrontation and contest within acceptable and normal procedures, e.g., through the courts, in legislatures. The attempt is to win over enough control so that the "proposal" being advocated can be implemented.

b - Attempts to change the distribution of power that controls whether something is an issue, or how an issue should be dealt with, e.g., by electing the "right kind of people," by proving the backing of large numbers of people, legal demonstrations, etc.

c - Confrontation and contest outside the normal and acceptable procedures existing within society. This means that one or both parties break the "rules of the contest," e.g., sit-ins, illegal demonstrations, etc.

Roland Warren makes a distinction between "contest strategies" and "conflict strategies." He defines a conflict strategy as one in which there is not only Issue Dissensus, but where the situation is so that one party tries to eliminate the other party, or both try to eliminate each other. He did not develop this as a separate alternative approach to development, but it might be well to consider this as a possible fourth approach. Not an approach that would be advocated, but one that needs to be recognized and understood today, as it is being used throughout the world and even within the United States on occasion.

INTEGRATION OF THE TWO PERSPECTIVES ON ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES

The twelve first mentioned descriptive approaches can, with some "pushing and pulling" be fitted into the three basic "strategy" alternatives of Collaboration, Campaign, and Contest. Again, a word of caution -- we are dealing with complex processes and concepts and stripping them down to very simplistic terms, for the sake of illustrating points and stimulating discussion.

1. The "Collaborative Strategy" Approach

    (a) Basic elements to this approach:

        (i) "Issue Consensus" - Actual or potential consensus about - the issue, or

        - ways of dealing with the issue.

        (ii) The change agent is a facilitator, stimulator, catalyst.

        (iii) The change agent doesn't have preconceived ideas about an issue or how to resolve an issue.

        (iv) People and factions will agree upon the issue and how to deal with it, once they all have enough knowledge.

    (b) Descriptive "approaches" which fit:

        (i) The "Community" approach

        (ii) The "Education" approach

        (iii) The "Human Resources" approach

        (iv) The "Power Structure" approach

2. The "Campaign Strategy" Approach

    (a) Basic elements to this approach:

        (i) "Issue Difference" - Lack of agreement among the principal parties on:

        - whether an issue exists, or

        - how an issue is to be resolved.

        (ii) Though there are differences - there is an assumption that agreement can be reached on the issue and how to deal with it.

        (iii) The change agent role is that of a persuader, campaigner, convincer.

- (iv) The change agent has "preconceived" ideas about issues and solutions to issues, which have to be "sold" to an apathetic community or which have to gain acceptance over opposition within the community.
- (v) The outcome of this strategy is a state of issue consensus.

(b) Descriptive "approaches" which fit:

- (i) The "Planning; Design and Architectural" approach
- (ii) The "Community Facilities Improvement and Physical Development" approach
- (iii) The "Economic Development" approach
- (iv) The "Regional Development" approach

3. The "Contest Strategy" Approach

(a) Basic elements to this approach:

- (i) "Issue Dissensus" - Complete disagreement (based on values and beliefs) about
  - whether an issue exists
  - how an issue is to be resolved
- (ii) The differences are basically not reconcilable within the forseeable future, thus one or the other side has to "win." It's an "us" versus "them" contest.
- (iii) The role of the change agent is that of contestant, who tries to have "his side" win.
- (iv) The change agent and the "other side" both have "preconceived" ideas about what is an issue and/or what its solution should be.
- (v) The change agent attempts to work: "within the system;" at changing the distribution of power; or by confrontation and working "outside the system."

(vi) The outcome is that one or the other side "wins."

(b) Descriptive "approaches" which fit:

(i) The "Helping the Disadvantaged" approach

(ii) The "Conflict" approach

(iii) The "Radical Change" approach

4. Finally, a fourth possible major alternative approach to development - labeled the "Conflict Strategy" approach should be considered. It's major elements would be:

- Complete "issue dissensus" - absolute disagreement on issues and methods for dealing with them.
- No reconciliation between the factions is possible.
- Either side (or both) tries to completely and physically eliminate the other side - a struggle for survival in the literal sense.
- The role of the change agent is to eliminate the "other side."
- The change agent will use any method that is necessary to achieve his ends - (with the "ends justifying the means") - including working with and through the "system" all the way to destruction of property and actual violence on and killing off the opposition.

The one "descriptive" approach which would fit into this alternative would be the "Revolution" or "Total Change" approach.

SOME CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Even though, on a descriptive basis it is possible to identify a host of different approaches being used in community development, there are basically three major alternative approaches in which the former can be fitted. The question is how can community development workers use this information.

The first major conclusion, which has already been alluded to, is that there are different ways in which the development of communities can be brought about. There is no one right way, but there are some alternatives that are more effective than others, depending on the situation. The factors that have to be considered in the situation, for deciding on what alternatives are best, would include:

1 - The personal orientation of the community development worker himself. What are his beliefs and values? What are his skills and knowledge for working in different situations? How flexible can he be?

2 - The orientation and philosophy of the agency or organization the community developer works for. What are the limits that the agency permits, in terms of situations it will become involved in and what kind of alternative approaches will it allow its staff to become involved in.

3 - What are the issues that confront the community. Does community consensus, difference or dissensus exist about the issues.

4 - What are the alternative means for addressing the issues in the community. Is there consensus, difference or dissensus about the means for dealing with an issue.

Ideally, it should be possible for change agents to use all three basic alternatives to development, whenever and wherever appropriate. Though most would hope that all community development were possible using the "collaborative strategy" approach, practical reality precludes this. In most communities, rural or urban, it is usually not possible to find "issue consensus" situations when significant issues or problems are being considered. Most significant issues and problems in communities result in both "issue difference" or even "issue dissensus" situations. Thus, change agents should be able to adapt their approaches accordingly.

In fact, most community developers do use more than one basic approach to development. The most common combination of approaches used, usually without being aware of it, is that of the "campaign strategy" approach followed by the "collaborative strategy" approach. Usually the agent sees an issue that a community doesn't, convinces the community that the issue exists, and then proceeds to facilitate collaborative efforts in resolving the issue. Or, the agent knows of a way of resolving an issue in the community, convinces the community that his method is the best, and then they work together on implementing the needed change.

The real difficulty in adapting to the situation and being able to apply all three major alternative approaches comes when there is a real "issue dissensus" situation in the community. Most change agents who can and do use the "collaborative" and "campaign strategy" approaches, hesitate to become involved in a "contest strategy" approach. They hesitate because of their personal inclinations, philosophy, beliefs and values. Also, because the organization or agency orientation would not allow them to become involved in such an approach, even if the individual worker was so inclined. In addition, those who do regularly use the "contest strategy" approach, do so based on their beliefs and values, and have no inclination for using the other approaches.

Under these circumstances, it still is important, however, that change agents are aware of the different alternatives and can recognize them when they are being employed by themselves and others. It may be that, even though one is reluctant to actively use the "contest strategy" approach, it is possible to work indirectly with those who do employ this approach. It is also important that, within the limits that one personally sets or that one's organization or agency sets, one can use those alternatives that are available in a flexible and appropriate manner.

In sum, there is no one right approach to development for all communities under all circumstances. Approaches need to be mixed according to the situation. Community developers need to be flexible themselves and also recognize different approaches used by others. They also need to examine what approach they, as individuals use and why. In addition, they need to examine what approaches their agency or organization take and approve of. Individuals and agencies need to examine if the approaches they use are the result of a conscious effort to use the appropriate approaches, or as a result of history, tradition, rules and regulations.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT*

I THE PROCESS:

A. Community development is a process of helping people help themselves by

1. facilitating group process in determining direction of action
2. supplying technical assistance, resources (financial, human and material)
3. identifying and mobilizing resources to facilitate change.

B. Community development as a process is based on certain assumptions:

1. People can change themselves and others.
2. People have the talents and abilities to deal effectively with their own problems.
3. People should play a significant role in changes affecting them.
4. Changes in which people are personally involved will have a meaning different from changes which are imposed.
5. Participation in change from below presents a viable alternative to planning and policy setting solely from above. (Control sharing is imperative in a democratic society).

II COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AS IT APPLIES TO PROFESSIONALS

Community development is a term which is often construed to be the same as community organization and technical assistance. They are not the same.

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* Adapted from a paper by John Gisler, University of Utah

A. Community Development: is the process in which groups of people work together to improve a condition which affects their lives.

B. Community Organization: is the act(s) of bringing together people who have common needs and who are looking for change.

C. Technical Assistance: is the help which others provide to an organization upon the request of the organization itself. It may be long-term or short-term. The nature of the technical assistance must meet with the approval of the organization. Both community organization and technical assistance are tools which facilitate the community development process.

III COMMUNITY DEVELOPERS:

Community developers are those persons who are facilitating the community development process.

They may be either organizers or technical advisors (assistants). On occasion a person may play both roles simultaneously. There is not always a clear distinction between the two. Most often a person will be playing one role or the other. Whatever role is being played, the person should be acutely aware of the implications of his/her actions.

Basically, the distinguishing characteristics between the two roles as they are played out in relation to the organization are as follows:

Technical Advisor	Community Organizer
Trusted Outsider	Trusted Insider
Non-identification with the group	Identification with the group
Non-initiating	Instigator
Non-advocate	Advocate
Opens doors (legitimizer)	Uses open doors
Identifies resources	Mobilizes resources
Objective	Subjective
Works with groups on invitation basis	Brings people together in groups
Articulates needs into problems	Identifies people's needs

IV PROBLEM SOLVING APPROACH:

Within the community development process, it is sometimes necessary to assist the group to adopt and utilize a problem solving approach which can lead to logical and effective solutions of problems. Frequently a group becomes fragmented by seemingly disconnected discussions and ideas. It is not uncommon for a group to seek or request the help of a technical advisor to offer guidance.

One problem solving approach is summarized below:

Step One - problem identification
Step Two - seeking alternative solutions
Step Three - seeking objective(s)
resource identification
action steps (who, what, how, when)
Step Four - implementation
Step Five - evaluation

Caution: The technical advisor should avoid allowing group to develop long-term dependence on him.

II. PRIMARY OBJECTIVES OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT*

A. To create social structures, social actions and group work which would stimulate:

1. Self reliance
2. Self-confidence
3. Self-determination
4. Self-leadership and initiative

B. To guide and help community members:

1. To realize their individual potentialities and develop their abilities and skills
2. To develop positive attitudes towards life
3. To orient themselves toward failure and risk taking
4. To learn new social roles (rights and responsibilities) in the community
5. To discover the division of labor as a convenient, practical and beneficial means of group efficiency and productivity -it is also important that community members discover the limitations of division of labor and thereby learn when this technique can be advantageously employed.
6. To observe and understand cause and effect relationships within the empirical realm
7. To find out scientific explanations for social and physical events

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* From: "The Parameters of a Training Program
for Community Development Change Agents
NWREL - Jeff Boyer 1972

C. To encourage the community members:

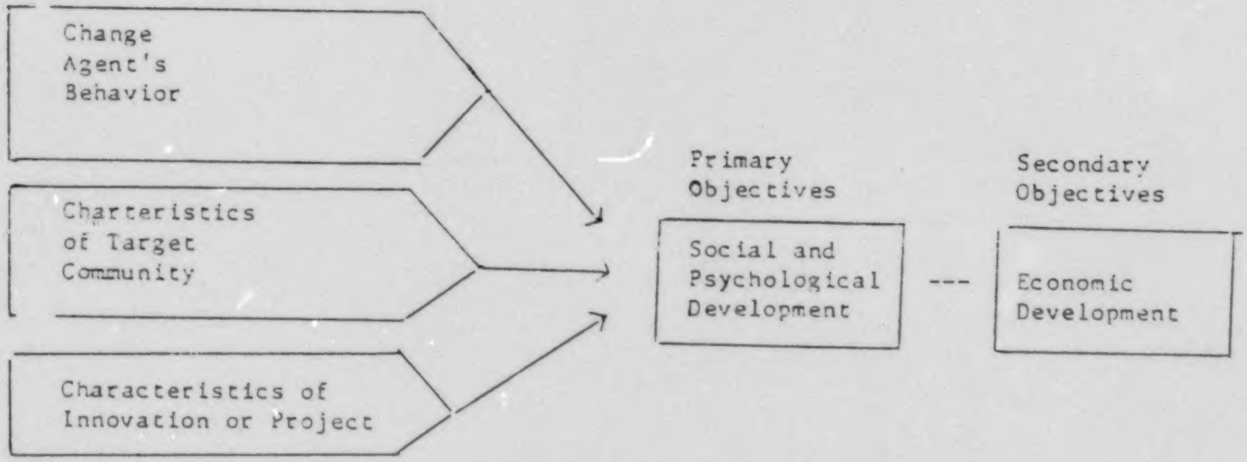
1. To take responsibility in community organization
2. To take part in problem-solving processes and decision making
3. To feel they are the primary factors in the social development and progress of their communities
4. To have confidence in their promotional efforts

III. DIMENSIONS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Social scientific research all over the world has identified three basic factors or variables that condition the community development processes. They are the primary determinants of the acceptance and success or failure of a community development program. These independent variables are: (1) The change agent's behavior; (2) the characteristics of the target community; and (3) the characteristics of the innovation or project. The remainder of this section treats the important features of each of these variables and how they interrelate to condition the processes and outcomes of community development.

The basic conceptional model guiding this discussion of the dimensions of community development is shown on the following page.

DIMENSIONS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT


Change Agent's Behavior
Charteristics of Target Community
Characteristics of Innovation or Project
Primary Objectives
Social and Psychological Development
Secondary Objectives
Economic Development

THINGS INDIVIDUALS AND AGENCIES CAN DO TO INCREASE CITIZEN PARTICIPATION *

What is needed -- and possible now -- is an invigoration of citizen participation in community, State and National affairs: needed because of the problems which exist and the necessity of resolving conflicts between the private and public interest; possible because of the great skill and competence of citizens and the changing philosophies of management and administration in both public and private agencies. These new philosophies value citizen participation and see it as a means to the achievement of a better society. Forms of manipulation which parade as participation are questioned. Uses of information, techniques of placation and some aspects of public relations are being rejected as mere tokenism. We are seeking a new and more powerful partnership between public and private agencies and citizens through which performance of public and private agencies can be evaluated, and attention focused on what is and what is not being done. Through such a partnership the desire for the solution of problems and for quality in community life can be expressed, and the climate created which makes reasoned action successful.

This brings us then to what citizens and their agencies can do to help forge a new partnership.

What the Individual Citizen Can Do:

These are some of the things an individual citizen can do: He can -

1. Talk with friends and neighbors about things that concern him. Raise Questions. Tell others what he'd like to see happen in the community. Others may want to see something happen, too.

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* Excerpted from "Citizen Participation is the Key" by Dr. E.O. Moe, Principal Sociologist, Cooperative State Research Service, USDA, Washington, D.C.

2. Seek information about action which affects the community and/or his interests. Get to know what his rights are as a citizen. Become informed.
3. Join organizations or groups which are trying to do something to improve the community or which voice his views on issues.
4. Seek and/or accept opportunities to serve on committees, councils, boards, and task forces, both those organizations to which he belongs, and those appointed by public agencies and public officials.
5. Use all the means available to him to get his ideas across to agency leaders, local public officials, members of State legislatures, Congress and the general public, such as personal contacts; letters; petitions; use of mass media - newspapers, radio, television; attendance at public hearings.
6. Help other people become involved at points where they see their interest at stake.
7. Help staffs of public and private agencies create opportunities for citizen participation.
8. When other alternatives are exhausted and important issues are not resolved, he can take court action with competent legal assistance.

Action by individuals on their own is highly important. Individual action channelled through some group or organization is likely to be even more effective - most of the time. More powerful still are coalitions of individuals, informal groups, and formal organizations and associations which join their resources to achieve clearly specified objectives. Citizens and organizations working through such coalitions can improve their communities. It is likely that such coalitions will be powerful tools in the accelerating community improvement and development.

What Agencies Can Do:

There are many things agencies and organizations can do to increase citizen participation and make it more effective. Some of these are:

1. Re-examine existing structures and procedures for involving citizens to make sure they are adequate and effective.
2. Look at the make-up of existing policy making and advisory groups - do they accurately represent whatever they are supposed to represent? Are they inclusive enough? Do they include the left out groups?
3. Create new opportunities for participation to supplement general advisory and/or policy making bodies such as policy recommending groups on special problems or issues; groups to propose compromise solutions between conflicting interests; quality assurance panels to review plans and programs.
4. Make groups large enough to represent the interest involved. Small groups of 3 to 15 members can reach decisions quickly, but the decisions may not be implemented. Accept larger, more

representative groups and devise effective discussion and decision making procedures.

5. Involve citizens early and at every step of the processes.
6. Continually stress the importance of citizen participation through public education and information.
7. Provide technical help and assistance to citizens to support their participation.
8. Help participating citizens and groups build their own support systems to deal with criticism and attack.
9. Build in "feedback" mechanisms so that people participating and the general public know what suggestions and recommendations made by citizens are taken into account. This should be an important part of every public information program.
10. Give appropriate recognition for participation.

These are important considerations in strengthening citizen participation.

The Road Ahead

The present concern about quality of life and quality of environment has arisen in part as a citizen protest. Great resources and great opportunities have not been translated into the good life implicit in the American dream. What is at stake is too important to be left to the experts. A new partnership between citizens, their public and private agencies and their Government with widespread citizen participation can lead the way.

PROCESS *BEFORE* PROGRAM: A RECIPE FOR COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Lee Green

By
LEE GREEN
Program Associate
Rural Education Program
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

Community educators have invested years of effort in developing programs to increase the service schools offer to communities. This results in school influence moving into the community and increasing the ties between the two. Another direction is taken when community influence moves into the school and citizens take up active, participatory roles in defining educational decision making and creating new school programs from the very beginning.

PRINCIPLES FOR INVOLVEMENT

The Rural Education Program of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, in Portland, Oregon, has been working for several years on a process for involving citizens of small communities in educational planning and decision making. As we looked at our successes and failures, we found some factors kept turning up, and were noticeably present in our successes, and weak or lacking in our failures. We decided these must be principles. I will discuss five of these: 1—ownership; 2—skill training, 3 — recognition of uniqueness of each situation, 4 — representativeness of the community group, and 5 — facilitation by a neutral party. It is my feeling that these principles are those which are needed by community educators as they work toward widespread community involvement processes.

OWNERSHIP

The principle which seems to be most vital for successful involvement of people is that of ownership — as people come to understand that the program and plans involved belong to them and not to the school or to the community educator they begin to invest energy and commitment. It is difficult but not impossible to get this understanding of ownership started, and it is essential that it be maintained at all times. This causes a somewhat new role for some community educators; many others have already discovered that the alive programs with high participation are those where it is clear that the program belongs to the people, and the community educator is there to facilitate rather than direct their efforts. The skills necessary for creating and maintaining ownership include skills for instigating and supporting needs assessment activities which do not have program assumptions built in, for sharing skills on data management and analysis, for promoting group participation in a way that encourages all to take part, and in general, the skill for advancing and guiding other people in planning and decision making activities rather than doing any of these things for people. It is essential that such a process facilitator believe that *all persons have a right to be involved in decisions which affect them.* No less essential is the belief that *all people have the capacity for learning constructive skills for such participation.* Without these cornerstones, ownership will remain with the skilled professional, and community involvement will be nonexistent or superficial.

SKILL TRAINING

The second principle which seems tied to the success of citizen involvement is closely related to the first. It is that *people in general do indeed need skill training in order to participate effectively in groups*, and that this skill training is most successful when done in the context of real activity. The early cycles of community participation efforts are something like teaching a youngster to cook — the mess is incredible, it takes much longer than doing it yourself, the outcome is often less than perfect and not what you might have chosen, but it's a lot of fun and they can do it again when you are not around. Skills for the community educator who is providing skill training for others include awareness of sound problem solving processes, well developed communication skills, training skills of a subtle nature, and expertise in developing leadership skills in community people. This last is very important. The community educator or process facilitator who can assist community people to identify, utilize and support community leadership is well on the way to a successful program. This leadership will be most effective over a long period if it is drawn from both existing leadership and

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potential new leaders, and from all components of the community. When this is in effect, the first principle, that of ownership, is greatly enhanced.

UNIQUENESS

The third principle which seems to be linked to all successful involvement efforts is that of *acknowledging the uniqueness of each situation.* This point seems self-evident; however, the ramifications of it are not. While community educators may understand that each local situation is a unique combination of resources, needs, awarenesses, and limitations, they may not realize that the only people who know what these factors are are the local community people. The local people are always the local experts, even if they or the professional are not acknowledging this fact. As people begin to work in an *accepting circumstance* where they are valued, they often express themselves in the following way — "That sounds like a really good idea, but I don't think it will work here unless we change it around some." Now that's not a terribly clear plan, but the wise process facilitator will recognize the clue, and pursue the point, hunting for validation among other community people. Often it turns out some local custom, attitude, or belief of which people are only partially aware underlies the uneasiness, and if this is ignored or violated the program will not succeed. Other skills related to the principle of recognition of uniqueness are those related to assisting people identify local resources, to analyze local capabilities and limitations, and to engage in flexible planning.

REPRESENTATION

A fourth factor linked to successful community participation efforts is that of representation. *When people from all aspects of the community are involved, program success gains in probability.* One reason for this is that wide representation enhances communications more than any planned P.R. program — people listen to people they know, and that they view as having life styles and needs similar to their own. Another reason is that each faction in a community has contributions to make to the program which are valuable, and varieties of values, attitudes, and information provide rich resources to groups interested in improving education. Skills needed to ensure representativeness include knowledge of easily used socio-metric techniques, and skill in supporting an environment in the group where differences are valued and respected rather than suppressed. An additional note is that many groups of people are usually excluded from meaningful participation in planning and decision making, and will need not only skill training, but active support and encouragement for their involvement from the community educator. These groups vary from community to community, but often include the elderly, minority people, students, and the very poor.

The fifth and final principle is the one that makes the others operational.

NEUTRAL FACILITATION

That is that *community involvement processes succeed when they are facilitated by a neutral party.* The kind of neutrality referred to here is that of being willing to have the outcomes of the program be decided by the people in them, by lack of vested interest in any one particular outcome, by equal valuing of professional and non-professional participants, and by promotion of fairly objective evaluation of all activities, ideas, plans, decisions, and programs. If the community educator or process facilitator has definite ends in mind, and will consider no effort acceptable which does not lead to these, ownership will quickly fade if it ever does get started. It is often difficult to ignore a need that seems very clear, and assist a group to work on a need they have defined which may seem trivial in comparison. Only through such work, however, can skills and awareness be increased so that people can widen their base, and look at more of the situation in which they are functioning. As groups gain confidence from small successes, they typically begin to put up their heads and look around, to see where they can grow to next. It may take five years before a local group of citizens expresses interest in lifelong education, or other goals community educators hold dear, but experience tells us that people in general do want good education for their children and happy, productive lives for everyone. As they become skillful in participation, with the assistance of a neutral person who knows for sure that the program belongs to the people, they find ways to work toward these goals with which community educators are very familiar.

GOAL-CONSCIOUS COMMUNITY

These five principles — *ownership by the citizens, skill training for participants, recognition of the uniqueness of each situation, building and maintaining wide representation, and facilitation in a neutral manner,* — seem to be the basic factors for successful participation by citizens in educational planning, goal setting, program building, and program evaluation. William S. White, in a recent article in the Christian Science Monitor said, "The key thing here is that the planning-conscious community is a goal-conscious community. And where the citizens participate in goal setting through community councils they hold themselves accountable for results. The community council is a vehicle which can bring together all the facets of the school and community in a forum of understanding, trust, and appreciation. This positive atmosphere dissolves feelings of alienation, fear, distrust, and ignorance which are the heart of most of the problems facing schools and indeed society today." Community educators can work toward creating this positive atmosphere by patiently and skillfully building a successful community participation process in their community.

FIGURE 2

PARTICIPATION TECHNIQUES CLASSIFIED BY FUNCTION*

1. Information Dissemination

   PUBLIC INFORMATION PROGRAMS

   DROP-IN CENTERS

   HOT LINES

   MEETINGS - OPEN INFORMATION

2. Information Collection

   SURVEYS

   FOCUSED GROUP DISCUSSIONS

   DELPHI

   COMMUNITY-SPONSORED MEETINGS

   PUBLIC HEARINGS

   OMBUDSMAN

3. Initiative Planning

   ADVOCACY PLANNING

   CHARRETTES

   COMMUNITY PLANNING CENTERS

   COMPUTER-BASED TECHNIQUES

   DESIGN-IN AND COLOR MAPPING

   PLURAL PLANNING

   TASK FORCE

   WORKSHOPS

4. Reactive Planning

   CITIZENS' ADVISORY COMMITTEES

   CITIZEN REPRESENTATIVES ON POLICY-MAKING BOARDS

   FISHBOWL PLANNING

   INTERACTIVE CABLE TV-BASED PARTICIPATION

   MEETINGS - NEIGHBORHOOD

   NEIGHBORHOOD PLANNING COUNCILS

   POLICY CAPTURING

   VALUE ANALYSIS

5. Decisionmaking

   ARBITRATIVE AND MEDIATIVE PLANNING

   CITIZEN REFERENDUM

   CITIZEN REVIEW BOARD

   MEDIA-BASED ISSUE BALLOTING

6. Participation Process Support

   CITIZEN EMPLOYMENT

   CITIZEN HONORIA

   CITIZEN TRAINING

   COMMUNITY TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

   COORDINATOR OR COORDINATOR/CATALYST

   GAME SIMULATION

   GROUP DYNAMICS

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* From "Effective Citizen Participation in Transportation Planning," Vol. I, U.S. Department of Transportation, Washington, D.C., 1976

CONSTRUCTIVE CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Desmond M. Connor

Large-scale agencies in government and business must come to terms with the rising tide of citizen participation. There is no doubt that the movement toward citizen participation is spreading. From its traditional roots in the town-meeting form of direct democracy and its use by minority groups in urban programs in the last decade, it is now being adopted by a large suburban middle-class population in the wake of the environmental and energy crises. It is further encouraged by the thrust for an acceptable "quality of life" (however defined), a cause that can create some unexpected and broad alliances among formerly unrelated or even antagonistic groups. Thus it becomes important for the organization development specialist, the community development professional, or the change agent to work with citizens in developing this growing interest and making it as constructive as possible for all concerned.

DEFINITIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

While citizen participation is as old as democracy, it is a relatively recent field of professional activity and, like many new areas, has about as many definitions as there are practitioners: "persons outside the planning agency, including members of the lay public, are involved in the planning of public facilities and programs" (Willeke, 1974); "those types of activities undertaken by members of the public to influence the decisions made by government officials" (Warner, 1971); "a communication process between the planners and the public with the object being to share in the decisions that are made in the formulation and implementation of projects" (Tabita, 1972).

During a dozen projects over the past five years, the following concept of constructive citizen participation has proven useful (Connor, 1972): citizen participation in planning is a systematic process of mutual education and cooperation that provides an opportunity for those affected, their representatives, and technical specialists to work together to create a plan. This plan will thus reflect in a democratic manner their values, knowledge, experience, and best judgment at the time; it will be understood and supported by most of those affected by it.

This definition makes several assumptions:

1. Public participation is neither a single unitary act, such as a public hearing, nor a haphazard set of occurrences, but a planned process, responsive to the unforeseen but guided by a general concept.
2. The process of public participation is largely a learning experience by which each participant acquires a more complete understanding of both the issues and how other parties see the issues. Each participant is potentially both a learner and a teacher; a growing mutual trust and confidence between the parties is, of course, an essential foundation for learning and creative cooperation. This view of public participation rejects those approaches that focus on conflicts or negotiations between protagonists from initially fixed and polarized positions.

3. Public participation encourages the acceptance of civic responsibility in ways meaningful for the people concerned.
4. Since "those affected" often include the unborn, future migrants, and the currently unaware, spokesmen for these persons, e.g., elected representatives from appropriate levels and agencies, are included in the process.
5. The responsibility for the technical aspects of the project remains with its professional staff; public participation does not remove that responsibility nor that of the elected representatives under whom the project is carried out.
6. There is a focus on creating a plan that represents the best contributions of all the participants, within the constraints of the circumstances, rather than on minimally adapting a standard practice to one more situation.
7. Since technology and human values change, this concept recognizes that the plan must preserve its flexibility for future needs, problems, and opportunities.
8. The democratic manner of operation recognizes an open process to gather information, ideas, and preferences as directly as possible from citizens and to respond to this input; yet it also assumes a representative process of legislative democracy in which the political system functions by making final decisions on matters of public policy.

CONSTRUCTIVE CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Citizen participation will always occur in decisions that people feel are important to them, but too often it is too late, too little, or too negative to be useful. Although politicians and planners can hardly choose whether or not to have citizen participation, they can help it to be positive. Specifically, constructive citizen participation happens when:

- planners listen to residents concerning their attitudes, goals, fears, and factual suggestions;
- citizens (which may include visitors as well as residents) find early and convenient opportunities to make positive contributions;
- citizens learn from planners and others a broader and deeper knowledge and understanding of their environment, its potential, and its fragility;
- individuals, interest groups, and agencies identify their own positions, recognize those of others, and work toward a win-win solution cooperatively rather than become locked into a destructive win-lose or lose-lose pattern;
- relationships between planners, politicians, and other people are strengthened so that communication barriers are breached, and mutual trust increases as a foundation for communities to function more effectively in every way.

Constructive citizen participation is *not:*

- selling a predetermined solution by public relations techniques;
- planning behind closed doors when, instead, information can be shared;
- one-way communication, e.g., planners telling people what is best for them;
- public confrontations between "people power" and the bureaucracy;
- bypassing elected representatives or impairing their freedom to exercise their decision-making responsibilities.

BENEFITS

There are many benefits to be obtained through constructive citizen participation.

Data on goals, attitudes, values, preferences, and priorities are a crucial input to the planning process. Their only valid sources are the citizens affected. Attempts to give people what planners think is best for them or what planners think they want have led to one debacle after another. Such disasters leave the original problem unsolved, a heavy financial expenditure with little to show for it, and a corrosive residue of ill will.

The *creative capacity* for perceiving solutions to problems is not a prerogative of technical experts. Indeed, their training often equips them with as many blinders as insights. Concerned laymen can often see sound alternatives that experts do not. For example, a technically sound, alternative highway route in Ottawa was identified by a citizens' group; many teams of specialists had considered the problem for years without reporting this sound and widely acceptable solution.

Additional data, important to planners, can be provided by people who often have decades of year-round experience of the environment. When official records are recent and the project does not permit a full year of original data collection, the systematic recruitment of local observations can supplement other data sources.

Technical expertise in the key subjects of the project is often possessed by residents of the area. Either they can contribute this valuable resource in support of the project or, if they feel alienated, they can conspire powerfully against it. Constructively involving these people is a skill essential for project success.

Involvement in planning is demanded by increasing numbers of citizens who want to experience the process of creation as well as its product. Often they have a substantial sense of ownership in their part of the environment; to ignore this is insulting.

Managerial solutions for environmental problems (as opposed to purely structural solutions) require changes in people's behavior. The likelihood that changes will occur is greatly increased if people systematically become aware, interested, informed, and thus convinced that new behavior is needed. Planners must be careful that new recommendations are not left to traditional mentalities, thus increasing the need for regulatory legislation, enforcement procedures, and the needless proliferation of a law-and-order society.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

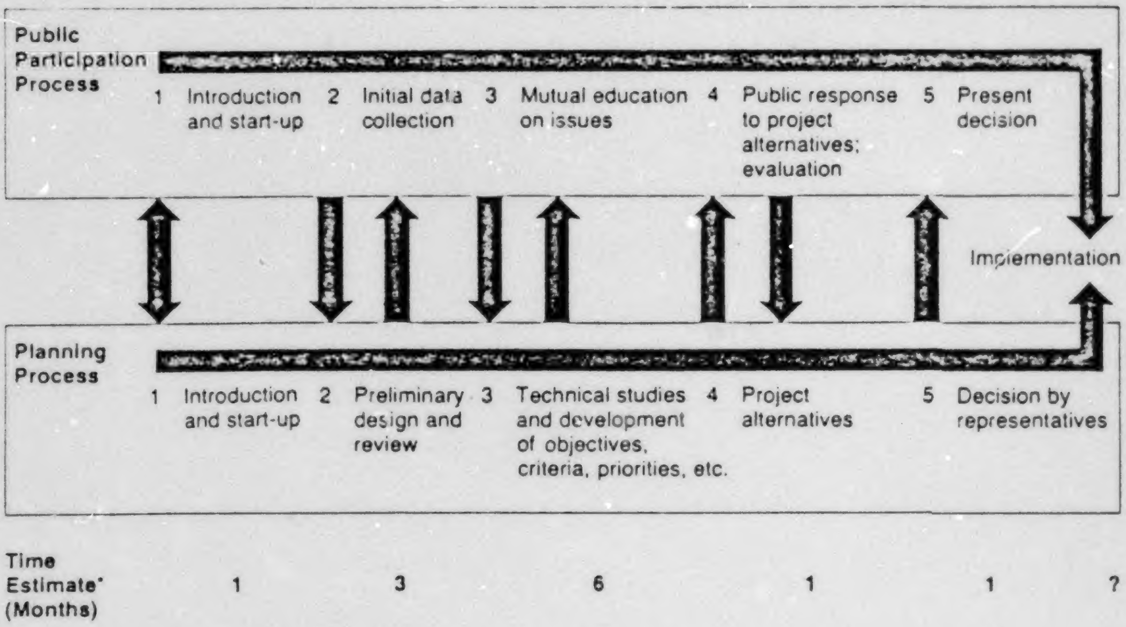
The stages of this approach to constructive citizen participation (Figure 1) are designed to parallel the steps in the usual planning process (outlined here for a twelve-month study):

1. Start-Up (One Month)

The objectives of this stage are to gain a rapid appreciation of the character of the community and the issues it faces; to contact key citizen leaders; to detail the design of the participation program; to recruit, select, and orient the staff; and to prepare and distribute an introductory brochure on the project.

2. Collecting Information (Three Months)

The focus now is on identifying the different publics and gaining a comprehensive understanding of each—the values, goals, attitudes, and knowledge of the people; leadership patterns; relevant organizations; communication channels; reactions to the project; criteria seen as important in making project decisions, etc.


Public Participation Process
1 Introduction and start-up
2 Initial data collection
3 Mutual education on issues
4 Public response to project alternatives; evaluation
5 Present decision
Implementation
Planning Process
1 Introduction and start-up
2 Preliminary design and review
3 Technical studies and development of objectives, criteria, priorities, etc.
4 Project alternatives
5 Decision by representatives
Time Estimate* (Months)
1
3
6
1
1
?

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*Based on a one-year planning process.

Figure 1. Public Participation in the Planning Process

Growing mutual understanding should enable the various interested parties to start working together. A foundation of acceptance and increasing trust should develop, fostering a cooperative climate for the definition of shared goals and encouraging a common effort to achieve them. If this basis for trust does not develop between the agency and the main citizen organizations, a coalition among various citizen groups is likely to occur, foretelling well-organized confrontations in the future.

3. Mutual Education (Six Months)

The objective of this phase is to ensure that each party has a full appreciation of the viewpoints of each other party so that blind spots are eliminated, and shared goals become evident as a focus for action.

This phase usually commences with the public distribution of information: background data, the purpose of the study, alternative solutions already proposed, names of the public or project staff, and a response form. Individuals and groups are asked to review this material, raise questions about it, contribute further ideas for solving the issues at stake, etc. Responses are then tabulated, summarized, distributed to the planning team, previewed by the project committee, and shared with the public. Constructive discussion is encouraged.

4. Choices of Alternatives (One Month)

With the help of citizen contributions, a number of technically sound methods and solutions are developed and evaluated in terms of the criteria put forward by citizens and planners. These alternatives are previewed and published as in step 3 in an attempt to discover how socially acceptable and politically viable each solution is. The public is invited to respond, indicating first and second preferences. Individual and group responses are collected, tabulated by areas, summarized, combined with technical information in a final report, and passed on to the project committee and the public.

5. Decision and Follow-Up (One Month)

Once the decision on the project is made by the elected representatives, the agency responsible communicates it, and the reasons underlying it, to all involved. Particular concern is given to those adversely affected by the decision. It is important that those who contributed to a project be kept informed of steps toward implementation, or unnecessary complications may occur. An evaluation of the participation program is essential for the success of future activities.

STAFFING REQUIREMENTS

To carry out a citizen-participation program effectively, a high level of staff competence is necessary, as well as an adequate level of other resources, in order to ensure that most citizens have a realistic opportunity to learn about the issues and express their preferences on them. To settle for less is to invite needless trouble.

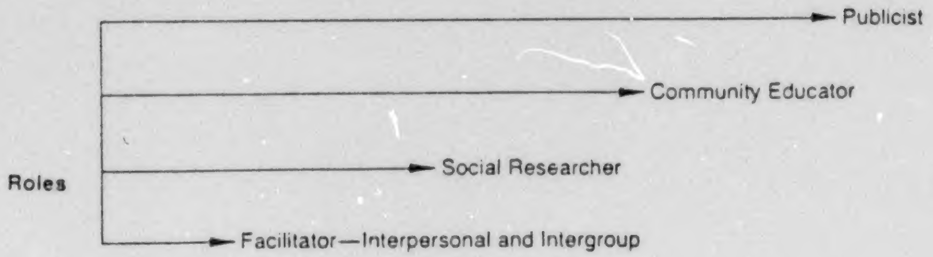
The staff skills required are demonstrated by a proven capacity to carry out community research, group work, and adult education. A master's degree in one of the social or behavioral sciences, followed by at least three years' successful field experience, is usually the background of the successful citizen-participation representative. The capacity to focus on interpersonal and intergroup processes is critical to the success of these individuals.

Depending on the population of the study area, the complexity of the issues, the levels of knowledge, the interest of the people, the organizational structures available, the position and coverage of the news media, etc., most projects will require at least one person on a part-time basis; many projects will require more. As the project progresses, a cumulative curve of citizen participation occurs as issues become more clear, self-interest becomes more evident, and the information about the project becomes more credible. Clearly, this curve has some very important implications for the staffing, management, and budgeting of citizen-participation programs.

Staff members are selected, trained, and managed in terms of four functional roles: the facilitator, the social researcher, the community educator, and the publicist. During the participative planning process previously outlined, the worker successively accumulates these four roles, as shown in Figure 2.

Facilitator

The first challenge to participative planning is to create a team out of what is often a new and multidisciplinary set of individuals. Usually, the level and quality of citizen participation does not exceed the level and quality of staff participation in the agency. Frequently, the participation member of the new team is the only person with much training or insight into interpersonal and intergroup processes. His contribution to the process of team formation is often crucial.



Stages	Start-Up	Initial Data Collection	Mutual Education	Public Preference	Decision
Months*	1	3	6	1	1

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*Based on a one-year planning process.

Figure 2. The Four Successive Roles of the Staff in the Planning Process

During the first month of start-up, in a typical year-long planning project, the facilitator must make a number of key contacts in the community. Positive relationships must be developed with as many of these key individuals and groups as possible, as soon as possible.

The role of facilitator continues throughout the project, both internally as a team member and externally with key persons and groups. It calls for knowledge, attitudes, and skills usually developed through small-group training and experience in the field of applied social psychology and human relations.

Social Researcher

The next essential task for the staff member is to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the various subgroups and publics that constitute the total community. What values, goals, attitudes, beliefs, and opinions prevail among each segment of the population? What do they know and believe about the project and the agency carrying it out? What are the leadership patterns, relevant organizations, and effective communication channels for each public?

Since the answers to these questions will change during the life of the project, a monitoring activity must continue until the end. The competencies needed for this task are typically acquired through the fields of community studies and applied social research.

Community Educator

A good half of the project, in this model, is invested in a mutual education process through which initially narrow perspectives are shared and then broadened to develop a larger shared frame of reference. Within this process, creative alternatives are generated, evaluated, and accepted. Written material and a variety of small meetings are the main techniques used to foster joint planning. Systematic feedback between the project staff and citizen groups is essential.

The ability to stimulate adult learning, despite the threats posed by prospective changes in behavior, is often gained in nonclassroom types of adult-education programs.

Publicist

When the major thrust is on obtaining the maximum public response to some technically sound alternative solutions, the capacity to orchestrate both informal communication systems and the mass news media is essential. After the public response is tabulated and presented both to the public and to the decision makers and the latter make their choice, the results must be conveyed to all involved in an understandable manner.

The design and execution of a successful media program usually result from both training and experience in public relations and communications.

Obtaining staff members with highly developed capacities in all four of the fields noted is of course highly unlikely. However, it is quite possible to:

1. Assess the project and its setting to determine the comparative importance of each of the four roles and their disciplinary fields;
2. Recruit and select staff members to reflect the characteristics needed by the project. Naturally, if more than one person is required, staff members with complementary competencies can be teamed;
3. Provide training as needed to fit individual and project needs.

In terms of interprofessional growth, an individual may possess high competence in one or more areas and lower levels of ability in the remaining areas. Through a process of on-the-job training and other opportunities, with a strong staff-development program, he may increase and extend his ability to cover each component.

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION AND ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

The whole phenomenon of citizen participation, when directed against a particular agency, can be viewed as a symptom that the organization has:

1. An ineffective external sensing mechanism concerning its physical, technical, social, and political environment;
2. An ineffective internal communication and work process involving the external data and resources it receives; and/or
3. An ineffective external action process that can visibly respond in a credible and acceptable manner to the messages received from its constituency.

Overcoming Inappropriate Processes

Some steps have been proven useful in improving operating processes in a planning organization. A planner can:

1. Have the senior decision makers identify just what they understand citizen participation to be and what they see as its advantages and disadvantages and supplement these with additional information as required; review thoroughly with the management group a statement of terms of reference in order to identify assumptions, priorities, differences in perceptions, and hidden agendas;
2. Study and understand the organization as a social system, especially its communication and decision-making processes;

3. Report to the senior decision makers the nature of the system and its implications for participative planning, e.g., the fact that the level of citizen participation in planning is unlikely to exceed the level of staff participation in the organization; secure a commitment from top management to bring about needed improvements in organizational effectiveness;
4. Facilitate a review and revision of organizational processes through staff workshops, team building, structural modifications, counseling of individuals, etc.;
5. Similarly, investigate and report relationships with other agencies, some of which may be vital to the client group's success; foster more appropriate relationships as needed, using, for example, intergroup methods and third-party consultation between key persons and groups.

CONCLUSION

The demands for citizen participation provide opportunities for large organizations to rethink the meaning of public service, to integrate themselves internally through organization development, and to link themselves externally with the public and with other agencies. As a result, the rifts in the fabric of society caused by rapid changes in technology and recent swift shifts in values may be repaired. The training profession now has a unique opportunity to contribute not only to staff development and organizational effectiveness, but to a resurgence of citizen vitality.

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COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: WHAT IT IS AND WHAT IT IS NOT*

At the outset, let me express both my congratulations to the planners of this conference on rural development research and to you directors of experiment stations for your support of it. Rural development research is a new area. In the existing and emerging development and redevelopment programs, rural development research has a major opportunity to contribute to the nation, to rural areas, and to the rural community.

Development activities of a variety of sorts, including community development, resource, area, rural and urban development are in many senses coming of age. They are now increasingly significant parts of the programs of many universities and their extension services, major concerns of a large number of organizations and agencies, central emphases in the programs of many national states, and an increasingly important part of the programs of our own national government. They are counterparts to the elaborate organizational development programs of many economic enterprises. Organizational development has made and is making great contributions in heightened effectiveness and heightened efficiency of such enterprises.

However one defines development, it connotes effort toward rebuilding and reshaping the human environment. This is an urgent necessity in a period of rapid change. The point has been made frequently in recent years that we are in a revolution and that we are closer to its beginning than we are to its end. If this is true, and there is good reason to believe it is, the task of developing and redeveloping the human environment--and the human community--are among the most important concerns of society and are certainly major concerns of our own society.

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*A paper by Dr. Edward O. Moe, University of Utah, presented at the Directors Workshop for Rural Development Research, March 5, 1970, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland.

Despite the critical importance of development, it has not been guided by research or subjected to research in the way that we have attacked other problems. One is overwhelmed by the vast sums of money and energy that have been invested in development abroad and in the United States and how little research guided or grew out of this activity. It is a privilege for me to participate in a conference that begins to address this need and that begins to spell out the kinds of research that is needed. This is a promising turn of events.

What I will attempt to do in the few minutes I have is to briefly explore these major ideas:

I. The context of development and redevelopment in the United States

II. Community and community development in an urban industrial society

III. What community development is not: community development and classical extension approaches

I. THE CONTEXT OF DEVELOPMENT AND REDEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

It is increasingly clear that contemporary society benefits from and suffers from an explosion in knowledge, particularly scientific knowledge and the technologies related thereto. This knowledge explosion is the basis for the industrial, urban, and bureaucratic revolutions in the modern world. And it is these forces--industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization--which have produced the society, the communities, and the institutions of today and which provide the context within which attempts to deal with the problems of the nation and of its communities must be conceived.

The effects of these forces pervade every aspect of life. Industrialization has altered ways of work, has greatly increased productive capacity, has produced affluence, and has, through widespread use of the automobile and the airplane altered time and space relationships. Urbanization has led to increases in the size of cities, the decline in rural communities, the suburban sprawl, the rise in sophistication, the increased importance of education, the confrontation with race, and a continuing conflict in values. Bureaucratization has resulted in increased size and complexity of organizations, the concentration of power in a few major metropolitan areas, greatly increased interdependence, the emphasis on administration, and personal feelings of powerlessness and remoteness in work, in community affairs, and in universities.

Some Critical Problems in Communities

It is evident that one of the significant achievements of American society and American communities has become a substantial weakness--that is, the creation of specialized competence and the placing of this competence in organizations and agencies. This came about in a natural and ordered way in both the public and private sectors. What has not been recognized until very recently is that this specialization has led to three classical forms of isolation and estrangement:

the separation and isolation of agencies from each other;

the separation and isolation of specialized agencies from the community; and

the estrangement of agencies from both the people they serve and those they might potentially serve

What has emerged within each community, then, is an enormously complex array of specialized organizations, programs, and services with a built-in dilemma of major proportions. On the one hand, there is the array of public and private services with interconnections between the local and national levels; and on the other, both at the community and national levels, there is difficulty in relating these services to each other in such a way that an effective attack can be made on significant problems. These problems may be rehabilitation, poverty, unemployment, education, or youth services, or they may be the composite difficulties confronting neighborhoods or communities. In any case, the problems usually transcend the services of any specific organization and demand the cooperation and articulation of many services and the work of many agencies.

Not only is this a major difficulty for individuals and communities, it is also a problem for the agencies offering services. Under conditions which now exist, it is almost impossible for an agency to achieve its own program objectives by itself. To be most effective, each must relate what it does to the work of other agencies and organizations.

The basic problem in development, as I see it, arises out of a kind of institutional underdevelopment or the lack of social machinery people have available through which to attack the problems which currently confront them. Whole systems and whole patterns have broken down or become inadequate to perform the functions now required. It has been observed that communities all over the United States, and all over the world for that matter, are structurally weak, that is weak in their ability to achieve the high possibilities in contemporary community life.

The systems through which men have worked are outdated and outmoded by time, by new knowledge, and by the industrializing, urbanizing, and bureaucratizing society of which we are part. This concerns men collectively.

The other side of the dilemma of inadequate system is the plight of the individual. Man has become alienated and powerless. We could accept this an an inevitable condition. On the other hand, we might be attacking the problem both in the system sense and in the individual sense create a new system to build and maintain a human environment of quality, one which enables individuals to find and hold a sense of community and a sense of self.

II. COMMUNITY AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN AN URBAN INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

Before talking about community development, some clarification of the idea of community is needed. Perhaps no word in the English language is used in more different ways than the term "community." It has been used to denote the place one lives; a defined geographical area; the network of services and agencies which exist in an area; the things people have in common, including the values they hold; systems which emerge having locality relevance; a way of life, patterns of relationships which grow up among people as they attempt to deal with the major concerns of life on a locality basis; a sense of loyalty and a personal investment in a set of relationships which grow up among human beings; the service areas of major institutions such as hospitals, public welfare departments, employment security agencies, a social system which is made up of people and their associations and agencies. Implicit in these ideas are the sociological, ecological, social psychological, anthropological, and geographical approaches to community. All of these approaches are valuable in building an adequate view of community.

Any approach or adequate view of community must take into account both the system and the individual as suggested above. In the kind of life we now live, community has become an intricate system, in fact a system of systems made up of individuals, groups, organizations, and institutions. Community in the systems sense is essentially the functional and economic areas which have come into being through interplay on the forces at work in our society. These are the areas that now encompass the life of our people and within which they now satisfy most of their needs. These are not the small traditional communities. They are more likely to be the regional centers and the surrounding counties within which social and economic life is now organized.

The small community and the small county pose some real problems, and may or may not continue to exist. They are more likely to continue to exist in some form if viable areas for development can be defined and can become the units for development.

The theory and technology for defining a community or a functional economic area exists. Time does not permit listing the criteria or the procedures for delineation. Most of you are probably familiar in greater or lesser degree with what is and what could be done.

From the individual point of view, the sense of community is caught up in the relationships which emerge among human beings. It is expressed in the patterns of interaction through which people attempt to attain goals they hold in common about an environment for human living and through which they can deal with problems they confront in common. Whatever the area may be, it takes on meaning for individuals. It in turn helps to impart meaning and give a sense of stability, continuity and control.

The Concept of Community Development

Like "community," the term "community development" also denotes different things to different people. For some the emphasis is on processes. For others, the emphasis is on results and outcomes or sequences in development, or on programs carefully planned in terms of procedures and content. Some students see it as a movement for widespread citizen involvement with high emphasis on self-help.

I conceive of community development as the process through which people develop more adequate patterns and mechanisms for building an environment of quality and through which they can deal with specific problems. It is the process whereby those who make up the community arrive at collective decisions and take action to enhance the social, economic, cultural, and physical wellbeing of the community It can be further described this way:

> It is a systems approach. It attempts to define and project a system which will bring together the relevant parts--people, groups, organizations, areas, communities, counties--into a viable mechanism for development. It is developmental and oriented toward the future, and it attempts to shape the present by the future or by ideas about what people want and what they will work to bring into being.
>
> As a result of the systems approach, community development is critically concerned about the capacity and willingness of people to see the community and its problems whole rather than exclusively as a collection of self-interests and of agencies and institutions and political units.
>
> It is concerned about the capacity to set common goals, to fix priorities, to develop new approaches, to test them in action, and to evaluate performance against national as well as local standards. This includes comprehensive planning and developing of plans for communities, counties, multi-county areas, and regions. It also involves planning within agencies and institutions. It strives for a

kind of planning which deals realistically with problems and sets a sense of direction. This devising of such plans makes possible the most effective use of local resources and the use of resources from outside the community or development area, as tools to implement locally devised plans.

It is concerned about the capacity to mobilize governmental as well as private resources and to forge working relationships among agencies of both sectors.

It is concerned about the capacity to involve and to affect critical centers of community power including the intellectual, in order to break through the bottlenecks in development, education, law, health and other fields.

It is concerned about the capacity to finance the considerable costs of research and experimentation as a basis for development.

Growing out of such ideas as these, community development must struggle with problems of organization for development. This directly involves multi-county associations, cooperation among local, state, and federal agencies, the nature and role of development corporations of various kinds, the initiation and continuity in planning programs, and the way decisions are made about development. Community development in a larger sense is the managing of change in such a way as to work toward both community and national goals while maintaining the integrity and self-determination of community and local areas.

So far we have talked for the most part about the systems and the devising of new mechanisms to deal with development. We can call this the systems or community side of community development. There is another side and that is the individual or personal one. Community development in this sense is the development of the people themselves and their enhanced capacity to act in concert with others on problems that affect the community or area. They may do this as members of boards, councils, committees, public and private development corporations, and other public bodies which work for the development of the community. There is a critical difference, as I see it, between individual education and community or community development education. Our educational system has been reasonably effective in enabling individuals to act in their own right, to be better managers, for example, and to take care of their own affairs. It has not been as efficient in enabling us to act together in things that concern us all. The headlines of every newspaper and every radio or TV news program attest to this fact.

We can now look at some things community development is not.

III. WHAT COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IS NOT: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND CLASSICAL EXTENSION APPROACHES

The question frequently arises as to whether or not community development is different in any significant respect from traditional agricultural education and extension approaches. There are many observers who see no difference in these approaches. I see four major differences. There are others, but they are not of the same level of significance. Let me attempt to explain:

1. Community development is a "systems approach. Cooperative extension, traditionally at least, has been more or less exclusively concerned with a significant part--agriculture. Once agriculture was most of the whole. In some communities, it is still most of the whole, but increasingly, in communities over the nation, agriculture is only part of a complex social and economic system. The traditional extension approach would begin from an analysis of agriculture

and would be more or less exclusively concerned with agriculture. Community development, on the other hand, while it might begin with a part or a segment would attempt to deal with the relations between parts and the whole as a total functioning system. It would be concerned with the functional social and economic areas as they emerge and change. It would center on creating a strong local economy. The development and building of small economies is an intricate job in most instances because of the quality, range, and amounts of resources available.

2. Over the years, agricultural extension and cooperative extension has placed high emphasis on individual management. It is a classical feature of the extension system and is a highly significant contribution . This emphasis on individual management and individual enterprise leaves under-attended some highly significant problems in the contemporary community. In contrast to emphasis on individual management, the emphasis in community development is on management of things which concern the whole community. It is concerned with group decisions, with decisions about the total social and economic area, about planning, about agriculture, education, water, sewage, decisions people have to make together. Community development, then, centers its attention on management of things which concern people together, which concerns them as communities, and which can be characterized as the management of public responsibility. Public affairs education has made significant contributions but the development and redevelopment of rural areas demand that we go much further than we have done in the past. The community or area development research is urgently needed to determine the what and how in development.

3. Over the years, extension, agricultural education, and agricultural development have tended to be activity and event oriented. They have emphasized

doing many things, putting out many types of educational programs. You and I are aware of the richness and diversity of an extension program. The essential concern of community development, on the other hand, is with the impact of educational programs and action programs on the community. What happens as a result of the educational and action programs? Do the programs add up and make sense within the community? Would they help the community to deal with the problems of common concern and with the public responsibility? This distinction, it seems to me, is a third important difference. The essential idea in community development or area development involves specific plans and systems developed by the people to make the community what it can be and perhaps should be. It is not separate, isolated activities or projects however valuable they may be.

4. Another major difference concerns the role of extension agents. In the traditional extension program, extension workers were essentially teachers. There was a body of knowledge to be communicated and this body of knowledge was to be taught. The extension worker was the teacher. When one attempts to deal with community problems, with decisions about multi-county areas, development corporations, about agriculture, about education--some teaching is required. On the other hand, a more appropriate role is that of the consultant, working with and helping people to make decisions--and in some sense teaching--but more importantly helping people to make the kinds of decisions which effectively achieve things that are important to them. When one deals with community problems--and education here is only an example--one's role changes because we are not teaching people to make decisions which we have arrived at previously. We are helping them to arrive at decisions which make sense to them and which will, at the same time, achieve the significant ends for which they strive.

The insistence on the part of many people that there is no difference between classical extension and community development may be in actuality a disservice. If differences exist, and I believe they do, we can be more effective by recognizing the differences rather than by assuming that because our activities helped communities develop that they were community development as it is now conceived. Does everything have to be fitted under an older label or is it possible for us to take a fresh approach which seems to take into account the conditions of today.

CONCLUSION

The title of this session--"What community development is and what it is not"--forces us to confront some critical questions. It is always hazardous to say what something is and what it is not. This is particularly the case with community development which provides a perspective and which is eclectic and exclusive of most of the things we have done in the past. The essential ideas relate to the system and to the individuals who will create, maintain, and change the system over time. The sets of ideas about the system encourage the centering of attention on what exists now, the system or non-system, and changes and modifications which could be made to more effectively and more efficiently accomplish goals in development. It is the creation of the new system and the new mechanisms and it is not exclusive attention to the parts whether they be activities, events, or units however important they may be separately.

The ideas about the development of the people centers directly upon individuals and the capability to understand what is going on around them. It concerns ways in which they can act to maximize their control. Community development, like much of what we have done in agricultural education in the past, is making education relevant to the problems we now confront. It is an attempt through education and through new patterns which support education to achieve the quality in life of which we are now capable. It will also enable us to attain higher levels of skill in solving specific problems which confront us all. Research is desperately needed to provide ideas and to test approaches in development. It has been and it still is a neglected area. Some substantial concentration of brains and money on development research is needed if we are to meet the needs of the present and the hopes of the future.

A. Change Agent's Behavior - The agent must create systematic linkage between the agent system and target systems: Through confidence building between himself and community members and by his image-building status, rank and recognition in the target system.

1. Pre-and post-entry knowledge of target community. Knowledge of the target community itself and the nature of its multiple relationships and linkages with the outside at both the regional level and the society as a whole. It is strongly advised that the charge agent gather as much general information as possible about the target area before entry. It is important that the predominant socio-cultural economic, political and physical resource patterns and anomalies of the region be understood by the change agent in order to see the dynamics and resistance to change in its regional context. Usually this general information can be obtained outside of the target community and this initial information gathering is an essential part of the change agent's pre-entry preparation. Upon entry into the community, the change agent should concentrate on getting to know community members and starting his own study of the community. His future actions depend in large part upon the depth and accuracy of his knowledge of the multiple dimensions of the community.

2. Advancing and guiding instead of decision making - A key concept that should be discussed at length with the trainees to emphasize the importance of its implementation to the total community development process.

Case studies can be used to demonstrate how change agents have used this concept in the past and the disastrous effects of its misuse.

3. Positive techniques instead of negative techniques - Positive technique here refers to working to stimulate creative responses on the part of community members and to support individuals and groups within the community as much as possible. Negative technique would be the use of threats, coersion, or playing one group off against another to achieve certain ends. Negative technique would be discouraging community members to discover for themselves what alternative courses of action are available.

4. Utilizing traditional culture - It is essential that the change agent understand the customs, work habits, physical motor patterns, beliefs, values and sentiments of the community and to work within their context. This is a basic reason for having an outside change agent conduct a study of the community. Some of the classic failures of cross-cultural planned change programs were caused by agencies and programs neglecting to utilize the traditional and local culture.

5. Utilizing legitimation of local leaders - A primary goal is to encourage the development of a dynamic, responsive local leadership team, and as the change agent gets to know his community, he should begin to work in support of creating this team. It is also important particularly at first that the local official leaders be consulted with and given their due respect.

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6. Flexibility in approach The change agent should be continually open to the possibility that new alternatives to community problems can come into focus that require a change in strategies and approaches. In situations where the efforts of the change agent to establish systemic linkage with the community have reached an impasse, his flexibility of approach is imperative for the continuance of the program.

7. Continuity in the project Just as it is important that the change agent be flexible, it is also important that once the community has selected a project that should satisfy felt need(s), the agent should work to support the steady, continuous effort to carry out the project. Needless energy, time and resources can be wasted, for instance, if a community begins one large project, and abandons it for other projects. This is not to say that a community cannot carry out two or more projects simultaneously, but care must be taken to prevent an over extension of the community beyond its limitations as sometimes results with initial bursts of enthusiasm at the beginning of a project. If more than one project is undertaken at a time, the projects should not duplicate each other's function or weaken the other project's impact and effectiveness.

The change agent should be made aware of the various stages that the community development processes usually take, so that he can plan and adapt his approach to the particular circumstances of each stage. Without discussing the properties of each stage, and with the knowledge that NWREL possesses extensive research materials about the stages of decision-making, I shall merely list them:

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(1) perception-awareness; (2) motivational; (3) movement; (4) mobilization: (5) quiescence and the possibility of recyle. Although these do not have to occur in this clear-cut order they are all contingent upon each other and the community change process does have an important continuity that the change agent should work to maintain.

8. Involving the local population in planning, implementation and maintenance This is a key strategy of community development, one measure of development and change is indeed the extent to which the community members are involved in the various stages of decision making and problem solving. Case studies here are effective in demonstrating to the trainees the importance of following this strategy, and the dangers of not encouraging community involvement.

9. Avoiding conflict - It is rare that the processes of social change occur without some kind of conflict, whether it is between factions and interest groups in a community or between the community and the larger power structures on the outside. The change agent should encourage the development of social mechanisms where conflict can be given attention and resolved. There are some instances when conflict and confrontation tactics are effective but in most cases, efforts of a change agent to embroil factions in conflict will only be counter-productive.

10. Observer and learner - The role of observer and learner is essential to the establishment of systemic linkage with the community, particularly in the early period after entry. This role is necessary in order to conduct the change agent community study. Finally it should be mentioned that the attempt to appear professional to the point of "knowing it all" almost always results in closing off meaningful feedback from the community members to the change agent.

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11. Respect and esteem for local beliefs - As obvious as this point seems, it remains one of the most neglected aspects of necessary change agent performance. The agent must develop a genuine sense of respect for local beliefs, customs and taboos, both religious and secular, though they are not part of his own system of beliefs. This problem has particular relevance when a suggested innovation or change would challenge a traditional belief as to the true nature of reality perceived by community members.

In general the agent must at least show respect for these beliefs if he is to be accepted in the community.

12. Participating in community's social, cultural and religious activities - Quite often this form of participation generates positive attitudes by people in the community towards the change agent, particularly if they have specifically invited him to share in the activity. On the other hand, behavior that is seen as "grandstanding", in an aggressive attempt to show that "See there, I'm one of you," is a mockery and community members would most likely reject future contact with the change agent.

13. Establishing a friendship circle - As is true with all of us the change agent will simply like some people more than others within the community and he will probably develop strong personal friendships with a few people. This should not be confused with a "friendship circle." Feedback communication from the various interest groups power structure, class groups, and minorities that make up an community is essential for the change agent to assess the impact of his program and behavior. He should try to pick individuals from each of these groups with whom he feels comfortable and vice versa, and develop an informal communication network. The keyword in understanding the function of a friendship circle is "informal." Quite often formal channels of communication are very rigid or even closed to the change agent, and a friendship circle can possibly be the only effective medium of both feedback and meaningful communication between the change agent and the various community groups. Although the friendship circle does not have to meet regularly, or even at all, the agent should maintain frequent contact and communication with these key people.

14. Recognizing and sympathising with the happiness and sadness of the community - Every community undergoes a cyclical series of events that produce collective positive and negative reactions on the part of community members . The change agent should develop a sensitivity to these changes in mood. Annual harvests, the fiesta of a patron saint, or other festive holidays, periodic droughts or flooding and crop failures are all important events with which the change agent must accommodate his program. is an issue of relevance here and it is possible for the sensitive agent to gauge the general level receptiveness to a new idea or innovation in relation to the general mood of the community at a given time. As the agent begins to plan his program, he should take the cyclical mood of the people into account. A sudden disaster such as an unexpected flood can produce an immediate sense of unity, further divide conflicting factions or stop activity in a community project and the change agent should sense these changes and react in accordance with them.

15. Treating the local people as intelligent and rational persons. The sense of this point should be just as clear as respecting local beliefs, but unfortunately it is one of the expected behaviors a change agent most frequently violates. The ability to accept people for what they are is of critical importance, and there is little doubt that every effective change agent possesses this quality. Quite often because of the agents own cultural blinders, he cannot see the immediate rationale of a particular action made by individuals or groups within the community. It

should be remembered that these people are operating under a set of very different cultural rules. If the agent is patient and observant enough he will eventually learn that invariably community behavior is quite logical and consistent with the largest systems values, beliefs and norms. Without understanding this it will be virtually impossible for the change agent to establish systemic linkage, particularly in a cross-cultural situation.

16. Model personality This concept should not be taken as suggesting that there is only one type of personality and one set of expected behavior for an effective change agent for nothing could be more absurd. It merely means that if a particular project demands sacrifices, and personal discipline from community members, the change agent should be willing to make similar sacrifices and quietly set an example for others. Quite often the change agent brings into focus the discrepancy between "what is" and "what ought to be" in the minds of the community members when his actions should be more consistent with behavior associated with "ought to be".

17. Realistic expectations One of the cardinal sins that change agents have committed in the past is to suggest a series of rapid changes that simply are not within the realm of possibility, in the foreseeable future. This only serves to needlessly increase the level of frustration within the community. It leads to bitterness and a refusal to participate in community projects, once it is realized that the new felt needs prompted by the change agent will not be satisfied. The agent should suggest alternatives and changes that have a realistic chance of success.

18. Fulfilling promises In order that the change agent be seen as dependable and realistic, he should be very careful to make only those promises that he knows can be met. Unkept promises obviously destroy the agents credibility in the eyes of community members.

19. Living in the target community . This is not always possible, particularly where a change agent must cover more than one community. It is never the less very helpful in establishing good systemic linkage for the agent to live in the target community. The agent's continued presence not only indicates a special concern about the people, problems and projects of the community, but it also serves to enhance the agents knowledge of that community by experiencing it in both the hours of work and leisure.

20. Acting according to local survey rather than cliches, stereotypes and textbooks Every community in the world is unique as experienced change agents begin to realize. It is important that action be based upon that uniqueness as found by the agents specific observations and formal community study.

* *

Arthur H. Neirhoff has provided an interesting variation of the basic conceptual model of the dimensions of community development that I think should be included at this point. His model is particularly germane to the discussion of the role of the change agent because it is primarily a model of communication. As Neirhoff writes:

"Communication by the innovator (change agent) is probably the single most important kind of action in which he will engage, since it is a prerequisite for everything that follows."

INTRODUCTION

As an RFD process facilitator you will be building for yourself a new and specialized role. It is appropriate that you take a long look at the many tasks to be performed and how they will accomplish your work. How you get the job done is as important as getting it done.

The RFD process facilitator's role has been partially defined by drawing on studies of change agents working with the Peace Corps, United Nations economic development projects, organizational development in both industry and schools, and other similar efforts. Therefore, the RFD process facilitator has much in common with consultants involved in other change efforts. But the process facilitator in this process is also, in many ways, unique.

THE PROCESS FACILITATOR AS A CONSULTANT

THE EXPERT CONSULTANT

One way to understand the process facilitator's role is to compare and contrast it with some of the basic types of change consultation that exist elsewhere. The most common type of consultant provides services that the buyer's own staff can't provide. In this case, the relationship of consultant and employer is essentially one of seller and buyer, and for some types of organizational or group needs, such a relationship works very well. If the buyer has a clear concept of what is needed and looks carefully for someone who has expertise in that area, the consultant who is hired can generally be very helpful for immediate or short-range problem solving. For example, a school district might find it helpful to hire a data processing expert to help set up a new accounting system.

As an RFD process facilitator, however, this is not your role. You are entering a system which may not have clearly identified one specific need, and you will not be generating solutions. Instead you will be helping to form a group of community

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members and school personnel who will conduct a needs assessment to find out what their community's needs are and how they might go about filling them.

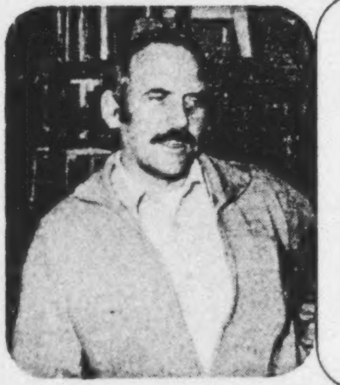
THE DIAGNOSTIC CONSULTANT

It is not unusual for a consultant to come into an organization, observe it for a time, and diagnose its needs in a specific area. When a manager or group senses the need for change but has difficulty defining one main problem, a consultant may be hired to do just that. Or a consultant may be hired when the group or manager is simply concerned with improving certain procedures or processes. The consultant who enters this system is like a doctor who diagnoses and prescribes. If the "patient" takes the medicine and the diagnosis is accurate, this too can be a helpful type of consultation. All too often, though, a consultant can make an accurate diagnosis, but the "prescription" is rejected by the group. This rejection may come as a result of the group's lack of involvement in the diagnosis, the "bitter taste" of the prescription, or any one of a number of other reasons. On such occasions, a consultant's advice is most resisted and least appreciated.

This is not your role either. There will be occasions when you will be involved in diagnosing a situation to determine what you can best do to help the group, but your primary objective is to help your clients develop problem-solving skills so that they can diagnose and solve their own problems.

THE PROCESS CONSULTANT

A "process" consultant helps group members to participate in diagnosis, thereby helping them learn diagnostic skills. The idea behind process consultation is that if people learn to see their problems and share in decisions and planning, they will be committed to the chosen solution and be able to solve their next problem.



This is your role. As an RFD process facilitator, you help groups identify problems and learn to work together to solve them, so that the learning lasts and people are capable of repeating their success. Also, as process facilitator, you assist groups with the methods or procedures they utilize to deal with educational issues. You help them learn a systematic way of building their own capacity to participate effectively in educational decision making.

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ASPECTS OF THE PROCESS FACILITATOR'S ROLE

With the task of building local capability as the focus of your role, four basic categories of behaviors can be used to carry it out: you can act as process helper, catalyst, resource linker, or solution giver.[1]

Each of these categories is discussed below in descending order of their use by PF teams.

PROCESS HELPER

A critical and often neglected role is that of helper in the process of problem solving. Because participants are not often experts in the "how to" of problem solving, they can be assisted in learning and applying such a process by people, such as you, who are skilled in problem-solving techniques and procedures. As a process helper, you help others learn how to:

- recognize and define needs or problems
- diagnose obstacles to meeting those needs or resolving those problems
- search for alternative approaches or solutions
- plan for and install them
- evaluate approaches or solutions to determine if they are satisfying needs or resolving problems

As a process facilitator, you will help groups as they develop their capacity to do the following things:

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[1] These four categories are defined by Ronald Havelock in Training for Change Agents.

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- plan and carry out specific activities and tasks

- use process skills and techniques necessary for effective group participation

- build and maintain productive relationships with other groups

RFD process facilitators are, first and foremost, process helpers. That is why the bulk of the material in this manual and much of your training focus on helping you develop competence in this important dimension of your role. To examine this dimension in greater detail, refer to the Handbook of Organizational Development in Schools, listed in the bibliography.

There are no School-Community Process activities that you should not be prepared to facilitate--indeed, specific guidelines for doing so are the major subject matter of this manual. For the most part, however, your activities will center on the following subcategories:

- Convening--It is unlikely that participants in the School-Community Process will have had much experience building agendas or convening the types of meetings that are part of this process (conducting needs assessments, participating in problem solving, building skills, sharing perceptions of goals, assessing a group's behavior).

A primary function of your team, therefore, is simply to get people together and guide agenda building and record keeping. Since it is important for group members to use time wisely and feel they are accomplishing something, you can concentrate on making meetings efficient

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and productive. As groups develop they usually begin to convene themselves with progressive ease and self-impetus, allowing you to focus on other activities such as helping a group develop its own procedures, decision-making styles, and patterns of interaction. Ⓡ 1

- Process Observation and Feedback--Few schools or communities will have had experience with process observation and feedback (observing a group and giving periodic reports on both the nature of people's interaction and the progress of their work on a task). A PF team can help to build this skill by modeling process observation procedures and techniques and by encouraging others to use them too. The purpose of process observation is not to offer prescriptions or solutions, but to provide information a group can use to become more effective in meeting individual members' needs and accomplishing specific tasks. Ⓡ 2

- Group Development--Group work is an essential part of the School-Community Process. Therefore, a key role for you is helping people learn how to minimize the negative, frustrating features of group work and build up the satisfying, productive aspects of collaborative problem solving. You can do this by helping each group build upon the skills and strengths of its members and develop skill in diagnosing and remedying such impediments to group work as conflict, tension, apathy, distrust, dependency, and wasted effort. You can help people assess their strengths as well as their problems. You can help them become skilled in choosing and using exercises that will improve their capabilities to solve problems. Ⓡ 3

- Problem Solving--Your most specific role is to enable others to develop skill in a systematic problem-solving process. You do this primarily by guiding people through the activities of the School-Community Process, but also by showing them how to use problem solving to identify and meet their group's needs while building positive relationships with other groups. Here, again, facilitative behavior involves teaching, assisting, and modeling. All three behaviors are appropriate. Ⓡ 4

- Data Utilization--One of the largest impediments to effective local problem solving is the lack of ready access to information upon which to base decisions. Helping local problem-solving groups perceive and articulate their needs for information, and devising ways to collect, organize, display, and use it in decision making are important dimensions of your process helper role. Ⓡ 5

CATALYST

Because people usually have within themselves the abilities to solve their own problems, an essential behavior of the PF team is to act as a catalyst--to help bring this potential to the surface. A catalyst helps to initiate actions, but does not become an integral part of the action once it is taking place. The RFD problem-solving process often gets started as the PF team helps people face and work on serious issues and problems. The types of catalytic behavior that complement the process are:

- Convening--This important function of the PF team is often catalytic in nature. Simply getting people together for the first time often causes different, conflicting opinions to come to the surface. These differences can be dealt with by the whole group. As an unbiased third party, you can break the ice, suggest new norms of group behavior, and introduce skills which help the group and expedite the process.

- Process Observation--Another way you can be a catalyst is to observe a group, determine why it is having difficulty, and suggest an exercise that might help it get over the rough spot. If group members can begin to see how their individual and collective behaviors support or subvert problem solving, they can also begin to plan ways to work together more effectively. Ⓡ 6

- Intragroup Collaboration--In addition to convening groups of people who have no precedent for meeting, you can often facilitate cooperative working arrangements for persons representing differing opinions and attitudes.

- Surfacing and Dealing With Conflict--Helping others identify, clarify, and resolve conflict is an appropriate facilitation task. When groups are made up of people from a small community where everyone knows one another, value differences, hostility, and factionalism are not always expressed openly. The result can be that conflict is expressed and handled in ways that destroy productive group work. When this situation is observed, you may need to help people discuss the conflict openly and deal with it. Ⓡ 7

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RESOURCE LINKER

If problems are to be solved effectively, needs must be linked with resources such as money, time, people, printed matter, and skill in diagnosing and solving problems. A very special and underrated role is that of the "linker"--the person who brings people together, who helps people find and use resources inside and outside their own community. However, if you do all the resource linking, people do not begin to build their own capacity to find resources. Linking others to resources means:

- Building Awareness of Resources That Are Available--You can help a group become aware of the resources available in the community, in various support agencies, and elsewhere. Insofar as linking is done to build awareness and not to offer solutions, it is appropriate. "Awareness" also refers to helping a group become aware of the knowledge and skills that each of its members has. This often involves offering encouragement and suggestions until the group is able to tap its own resources and have confidence in its ability to do so.

- Securing Additional Process Help--Sometimes you will need to help find and use skill building or other resources to increase group process effectiveness. Although you will be resourceful and knowledgeable in this area, you will want to involve group members, school leaders, and others in this type of linking, and help people learn to locate their own resources in the future. R 8

- Modeling and Supporting Linking Behavior--As you work with different groups, you should use consultants. Through your example, groups will get used to seeking outside resources.

SOLUTION GIVER

Many people who want to solve a problem or bring about change have definite ideas about what the change should be--they have solutions and they would like to have others adopt those solutions. In most cases, however, you should avoid giving solutions. A group that relies on you for solutions does not increase its own skills and competence. However, some areas in which solution giving--focused on process--could be appropriate are:

- Group Process

- Communications Skills

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- Problem-Solving Skills
- Conflict Management

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PROCESS FACILITATOR'S ROLE

WORKING FROM THE OUTSIDE

For many people, process facilitation is unique and unfamiliar. Therefore, it may be necessary to help people become accustomed to seeing you in that role. If you have worked before with the school districts in your area, you can probably help people understand your role by making it clear in both your formal and informal contacts that you have a new, neutral focus. For instance, if you have worked before as a subject matter consultant, it will be important to avoid being seen as a generator of curriculum solutions. If you have worked primarily with teachers, it will be important for you to establish credibility with community members, and so on.

When helping groups examine themselves, you must remain neutral. You are not an advocate for any particular group's issues or concerns. You are an advocate for participatory decision making and systematic problem solving. If you become politically involved, allocate too much time to one group, or act as an advocate for one idea, you will lose your neutrality and your effectiveness.

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The School-Community Process brings groups of people together who have not previously worked cooperatively and in fact may be suspicious or afraid of one another. Whether you begin your work as a perceived insider who has changed jobs or as a new, external facilitator, your first important job is to take a firm stand on neutral ground, and then keep it!

All consultants suffer in some degree from the conditions of "marginality." That is, they will never quite belong to the group or organization, even though they will make many friends within it. You will always be perceived as an outsider of sorts. You are not a teacher, board member, SCG member--and one day, when your work is over, you will leave to work elsewhere. This condition of marginality to the group is something all consultants must live with.

In addition, rural communities and schools sometimes resist newcomers, especially the "expert" type. Therefore, you will always encounter some resistance in working with groups, even when they have requested your help. This is a condition to which you should be sensitive but not take personal affront. It will be overcome quickly when people find that you are ready and able to help them become involved in meaningful activities.

Much of RFD's success depends on the skills of PF teams. Because of the number of people involved in the School-Community Process, it is unlikely that one process facilitator, working alone, could assist people to go through a process of this complexity. In any case, it is healthier for a team to work with groups of people, as team members can share skills, give each other feedback, and spark each other's creativity.

The team itself has a very important function. If you can constantly provide a model of what happens when people work together effectively to solve problems--if you work smoothly and effectively together--people will likely notice and begin to imitate your behavior. If you work at cross purposes, or fail to operate in the systematic, trusting fashion you advocate, your effectiveness will be tremendously impaired. Working as a team is important and should not be left to chance. One of the best ways to remain effective as a team is to establish regular and systematic ways of receiving your teammate's perceptions of your behavior and sharing your perceptions. You can each support your efforts

WORKING IN PAIRS

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to remain neutral and exercise process facilitation skills. Debriefing is as important for you and your coworker as it is for all others in the School-Community Process.

Since individuals are unique, there is no one way to prescribe or structure partnership roles to ensure that a team is effective. However, successful teams seem to have some characteristics in common. For instance, a strong team usually benefits from the advantages of differentiated skills, common planning sessions, flexibility in leadership, and a sense of interdependence. Further, the team whose members provide each other with frequent and supportive feedback remains strong.

- Differentiated Skills--In terms of efficiency and interpersonal support, you and your partner should utilize each other's skills instead of striving for a duplicate set. In a process as comprehensive as the School-Community Process, one person cannot keep abreast of current findings in all phases of process facilitation, and, as a team, you are best equipped to help a community if you have complementary backgrounds and skills. Of course, you hold a set of group process and communication skills in common, but one of you may be especially skilled at working with community members and the other with teachers. Or one may be adept at managing conflicts, the other at planning. As you work together, these special talents will become obvious, and your strength and resources as a team will increase.

- Common Planning--While you may divide certain tasks, common planning sessions will make it possible to share and discuss ideas and materials and to offer critiques of each other's plans. You can set aside time each week to plan and review the results of your work before and after meeting with a group. This can be done whether or not both of you do the actual field work.

- Flexible Leadership--Members of a confident PF team are able to trade off leadership without either member feeling a loss of prestige or enthusiasm. Leadership is perhaps most logically divided by particular group--with one of you responsible for working primarily with administrators, the other with the board. However, division according to skills or tasks is also reasonable. You can determine which combination suits your team best.

- Interdependence--Sharing skills, resources, leadership, and support produces an interdependent and effective team. In addition, successful teams usually schedule time to retreat from the task--often with a trainer or neutral, skilled outsider--and discuss ways they can most effectively complement each other's efforts.

- Observation and Feedback--If both members of your team make a conscious effort to systematically give and receive feedback, the most valuable contribution to the continuous improvement of your skill can come from your partner.

In summary, your role is to help participants become increasingly skillful in working together, in utilizing a systematic problem-solving process, and mastering a number of related techniques and resources when making decisions affecting the future of local education. To take advantage of differentiated skills, common planning, flexible leadership, interdependence, observation, and feedback, process facilitators work in pairs. The material you have just read can help you as you think about your role. You may therefore wish to reread it from time to time. The next material provides a systematic procedure for planning activities that will enable you to perform this role effectively.

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GOALS FOR PROCESS FACILITATORS

The process facilitator's role is best accomplished when it is goal oriented, i.e., focused upon the accomplishment of specific objectives. In the next two sections of this unit, two goals for process facilitators are discussed. Each goal, in turn, has three objectives. These two goals and their accompanying objectives are:

Goal #1:

To help local groups (school-community group, school board, and school staff) and individuals continuously grow in their capacity to participate in educational problem solving

Objectives:

1. Improving Task Accomplishment--to help participants develop the capacity to plan and carry out their phase-related activities by learning and applying the problem-solving process and by learning concomitant problem-solving skills

2. Improving Group Processes--to help groups develop the capacity to effectively utilize group process and to help participants learn about and gain the skills necessary for effective group work

3. Improving Intergroup Relationships--to help groups develop the capacity to build and maintain productive relationships with other groups

Goal #2:

To build your own competence to function effectively as a process facilitator

Objectives:

1. Building work-related competence--to develop skills in determining the needs of local participants, selecting appropriate tactics, and giving help

2. Building competence in self-development--to develop the ability to accurately assess one's strengths and weaknesses, set self-improvement goals, select appropriate means, carry out actions, and assess progress

3. Building competence in interpersonal relationships--to develop the ability to engage in productive relationships with both individuals and groups

In Section II, Goal #1 will be discussed in more detail along with a five-step planning process for accomplishing the goal. Section III presents a planning process focused upon Goal #2.

RESOURCES FOR SECTION I, UNIT II

Ⓡ1	Meetings
Ⓡ2	Meetings #7, #8
Ⓡ3	Group Dynamics
Ⓡ4	Problem Solving
Ⓡ5	Information Gathering
Ⓡ6	Group Dynamics #11, #12, #14
Ⓡ7	Group Dynamics #5
Ⓡ8	Information Gathering #2

CRITICAL ASPECTS OF A PROGRAM ASSOCIATE'S BEHAVIOR*

The PA must create systematic linkage and develop confidence between the PA and community members and achieve an acceptable image, status and rank within the community. To do so, the PA must attend to the community aspects of behavior.

1. Pre- and Post-Entry Knowledge of the Community

   Knowledge must be gained about the community itself and the nature of its multiple relationships and linkages with the outside at the regional level and with the society as a whole. It is strongly advised that the PA gather as much general information as possible about the target area before entry. This general information gathering, which usually can be obtained outside the target community, is an essential part of the PA's pre-entry preparation. It is important that the predominant socio-cultural, economic, political and physical resource patterns and anomalies of the region be understood by the PA so that the dynamics and resistance to change is seen in its regional context.

   Upon entry into the community, the PA should concentrate on getting to know community members and starting his or her own study of the community. The future actions of the PA depend in large part on the depth and accuracy of his or her knowledge of the multiple dimensions of the community.

2. Advancing and Guiding Instead of Decision Making

   This is a key concept in the total community development process. Case studies of successful and unsuccessful efforts consistently demonstrate the positive effects of the conscientious use of this behavior pattern by past PAs and the disasterious effects of its misuse.

3. Positve Techniques Instead of Negative Techniques

   The term "positive techniques" refers to working to stimulate creative responses on the part of community members and to support individuals and groups within the community as much as possible. The term "negative techniques" refers to the use of threats, coercion or playing one group off against another to achieve certain ends. Discouraging community members from discovering for themselves what alternative courses of action are open to them in their attempt to solve community problems would be a negative technique.

4. Utilizing Traditional Culture

   It is essential that the PA understand the customs, work habits, physical motor patterns, beliefs, values and sentiments of the community and work within their context. This is a basic reason for having an outside PA conduct a study of the community. Some of the classic failures of planned change programs were caused by agencies and programs neglecting to utilize the traditional and local culture.

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*Adapted from The Parameters of a Training Program for Community Development Change Agents by Jeff Boyer, May 1, 1972.

5. Utilizing Legitimation of Local Leaders

A primary goal is to encourage the development of a dynamic, responsive local leadership team. As PAs get to know their communities, they should begin to work to support the creation of such a team. It is also important, particularly at first, that local official leaders be consulted with and given their due respect.

6. Flexibility in Approach

The PA should be continually open to the possibility that new alternatives to community problems can come into focus that require a change in strategies and approaches. When the PA's efforts to establish systematic linkage with the community have reached an impasse, his or her flexibility of approach is, of course, imperative if the program is to continue.

7. Continuity in the Project

Just as it is important that the PA be flexible, it is also important--once the community has selected a project that should satisfy felt need(s)--that the PA work to support the steady, continuous effort required to carry out the project. Needless energy, time and resources can be wasted, for instance, if a community begins one large project and abandons it for other projects. This is not to say that a community cannot carry out two or more projects simultaneously. However, care must be taken to prevent an overextension of the community past its burst of enthusiasm at the beginning of a project. If more than one project is undertaken at a time, the projects should not duplicate each other's function, nor should they weaken each other's impact and effectiveness.

PAs should be aware of the various stages that the community development process usually takes, so that they can plan and adapt their approaches to the particular circumstances of each stage. The stages of development observed from Peace Corps experiences are: (1) perception-awareness; (2) motivation; (3) movement; (4) mobilization; (5) quiescence and the possibility of recycle. Although these do not have to occur in clear-cut order, they are all contingent upon each other and the PRI Process does have an important continuity that the PA should work to maintain.

8. Involving the Local Population in Planning, Implementation and Maintenance

One measure of development and change is the extent to which community members are involved in the various stages of decision making and problem solving. Case studies of community development efforts consistently demonstrate the importance of following this strategy and the dangers of not encouraging community involvement.

9. Avoiding Conflict

Rarely do the processes of social change occur without some kind of conflict, whether it is between factions and interest groups in a community, or between the community and the larger power structures on the outside. The PA shoul encourage the development of social mechanisms by which conflict can be given attention and resolved, rather than ignored. There are some instances when conflict and "confrontation" tactics are effective, but in most cases the efforts of a PA to embroil factions in conflict will only be counter-productive.

10. Observer and Learner

The PA in the role of observer and learner is essential to the establishment of systematic linkage with the community, particularly in the early period after entry. It is this role that the PA must fill in order to conduct the community study, and any attempt to appear professional to the point of "knowing it all" almost always results in closing off meaningful feedback from the community members to the PA.

11. Respect and Esteem for Local Beliefs

As obvious as this point seems, it remains one of the most neglected aspects of necessary PA performance. The PA must develop a genuine sense of respect for local beliefs, customs and taboos--both religious and secular--even though they are not part of his or her own system of beliefs. This problem has particular relevance when a suggested innovation or change would challenge a traditional belief concerning the true nature of reality as perceived by community members. In general, the PA must at least demonsrrate respect for local beliefs if he or she is to be accepted in the community.

12. Participating in the Community's Social, Cultural and Religious Activities

Quite often this form of participation generates positive attitudes by people in the community towards the PA, particularly if they have specifically invited him or her to share in the activity. On the other hand, behavior that is seen as "grandstanding"--making an aggressive attempt to show that "See there, I'm one of you!"--is a mockery. In such a case, community members would most likely reject future contact with the PA.

13. Establishing a Friendship Circle

As is true with all humans, the PA will simply like some people within the community more than others and will probably develop strong personal friendships with a few individuals. This type of friendship should not be confused with a "friendship circle," which should be developed purposely by the PA as part of his or her task. Feedback communication from the various interest groups, power structures, class groups and minorities that make up a community is essential if the Program Associate is to assess the impact of his or her program and behavior. The "circle" should be formed by picking individuals from each of the groups mentioned above with whom the PA feels comfortable, and vice versa, and developing an informal communication network. The key word in understanding the function of a friendship circle is "informal." Quite often formal channels of communication are very rigid or even closed to the PA, and a friendship circle can possibly be the only effective medium of both feedback and meaningful communication between the PA and the various community groups. Although the friendship circle does not have to meet regularly, or even at all, the agent should maintain frequent contact and communication with these key people.

14. Recognizing and Sympathizing With the Happiness and Sadness of the Community

Every community undergoes a cyclical series of events that produce collective positive and negative reactions on the part of community members. The PA should develop a sensitivity to these changes in mood. Annual harvests, the fiesta of a patron saint or other festive holidays, periodic droughts or flooding and crop failures are all important events with which the PA must accommodate a program. Timing is an issue of relevance here, because it is possible for the sensitive PA to gauge the general level of receptiveness to a new idea or innovation in relation to the general mood of the community at a given time. As PAs begin to plan their programs, they should take the cyclical mood of the people into account. A sudden disaster such as an unexpected flood can: (1) produce an immediate sense of unity, (2) further divide conflicting factions or (3) stop activity in a community project. The PA should sense these changes and react in accordance with them.

15. Treating the Local People as Intelligent and Rational Persons

The sense of this point should be just as clear as the reason for respecting local beliefs, but unfortunately it is one of the behaviors expected of a PA that is frequently violated. The ability to accept people for what they are is of critical importance here, and there is little doubt that every effective PA possesses this quality. Quite often because of the PA's own cultural or educational blinders, he or she cannot see the immediate rationality of a particular action made by individuals or groups within the community. It should be remembered that these people may be operating under a set of rules that is very different from what the PA is used to. If the PA is patient and observant enough, he or she will eventually learn that community behavior invariably is quite logical and is consistent with the larger system's values, beliefs and norms. Without this understanding, it will be virtually impossible for the PA to establish systemic linkage, particularly in a cross-cultural situation.

16. Model Personality

This concept should not be taken as suggesting that there is only one type of personality and one set of expected behavior for an effective PA, for nothing could be more absurd. It merely means that if a particular project demands sacrifices and personal discipline or maintenance of particular attitudes from community members, the PA should be sure to make similar sacrifices or maintain those same attitudes. As much as possible, he or she should quietly set an example for others. Quite often the PA brings into focus the discrepancy between "what is" and "what ought to be" in the minds of the community members, and his or her actions should be more consistent with behavior associated with "ought to be."

17. Realistic Expectations

One of the cardinal sins that PAs have committed in the past is to suggest a series of rapid changes that simply are not within the realm of possibility in the foreseeable future. This only serves to increase needlessly the level of frustration within the community. Once community members realize that the new felt needs prompted by the PA will not be satisfied, bitterness and a refusal to participate in community projects result. Therefore, the PA should suggest alternatives and changes that have a realistic chance of success.

18. Fulfilling Promises

In order that PAs may be seen as dependable and realistic, they should be very careful to make only those promises that they know can be met. Unkept promises obviously destroy the PA's credibility in the eyes of community members.

19. Living in the Target Community

This is not always possible, particularly when a PA must cover more than one community. It is nevertheless very helpful in establishing good systemic linkage for the PA to live in the target community. His or her continued presence not only indicates a special concern about the people, problems and projects of the community, but it also serves to enhance the PA's knowledge of that community by experiencing it both in the hours of work and the hours of leisure.

20. Acting According to Local Survey Rather Than Cliches, Stereotypes and Textbooks

As experienced PAs realize, every community in the world is unique. It is important that action be based on that uniqueness as it is found through the PA's specific observations and formal and continuous community study.

RULES OF THUMB FOR CHANGE AGENTS

Herbert A. Shepard

The following aphorisms are not so much bits of advice as things to think about when you are being a change agent, a consultant, an organization or community development specialist -- or when you are just being yourself trying to bring about something that involves other people.

RULE I: STAY ALIVE

This rule counsels against self-sacrifice on behalf of a cause that you do not wish to be your last.

Two exceptionally talented doctoral students came to the realization that the routines they were being put through to get their credentials were absurd, and decided not to complete the degree because they would be untrue to themselves to conform to and support an absurd system. That sort of reasoning is almost always self-descructive. Behind the noble gesture there are usually some childhood-based conflicts that are neither understood nor admitted. Besides their gesture was unlikely to have an impact whatever on the system they were taking a stand against.

This is not to say that one should never take a stand, or a survival risk. But such risks should be taken as part of a purposeful strategy of change, and appropriately timed and targeted. When they are taken under such circumstances, one is very much alive.

But Rule I is much more than a survival rule. The rule means that you should let your whole being be involved in the undertaking. Since most of us have never even been in touch with our whole being, it means a lot of putting together of parts that have been divided, of using internal communication channels that have been closed or were never opened.

Staying alive means loving yourself. Self-disparagement leads to the suppression of potentials, to a win-lose formulation of the world and to wasting life in defensive maneuvering.

Staying alive means staying in touch with your purpose. It means using your skills, your emotions, your labels and positions, rather than being used by them. It means not being trapped in other people's games. It means turning yourself on and off, rather than being dependent on the situation. It means choosing with a view to the consequences as well as the impulse. It means going with the flow even while swimming against it. It means living in several worlds without being swallowed up in any. It means seeing dilemmas as opportunities for creativity. It means greeting absurdity with laughter while trying to unscramble it. It means capturing the moment in the light of the future. It means seeing the environment through the eyes of your purpose.

RULE II: START WHERE THE SYSTEM IS

This is such ancient wisdom that one might expect its meaning had been fully explored and apprehended. Yet in practice the rule -- and the system -- are often violated.

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The rule implies that one should begin by diagnosing the system. But systems do not necessarily like being diagnosed. Even the term "diagnosis" may be offensive. And the system may be even less ready for someone who calls himself a "change agent." It is easy for the practitioner to forget the hostility of jargon that prevents laymen from understanding the professional mysteries.

Starting where the client is can be called the Empathy Rule. To communicate effectively, to be able to build sound strategy, the change agent needs to understand how the client sees himself and his situation, and needs to understand the culture of the system. Establishing the required rapport does not mean that the change agent who wants to work in a traditional industrial setting should refrain from growing a beard. It does mean that, if he has a beard, the beard determines where the client is when they first meet, and the client's curiosity needs to be dealt with. Similarly, the rule does not mean that a female change agent in a male organization should try to act like one of the boys, or that a young person should try to act like an old person. One thing it does mean is that sometimes where the client is, is wondering where the change agent is.

Even unwitting or accidental violations of the empathy rule can destroy the situation. I lost a client through two violations in one morning. The client group spent a consulting day at my home. They arrived early in the morning, before I had my empathy on. The senior member, seeing a picture of my son in the living-room, said: "What do you do about boys with long hair?" I replied thoughtlessly, "I think he's handsome that way." The small chasm thus caused between my client and me was widened and deepened later that morning when one of the family tortoises walked through the butter dish.

Sometimes starting where the client is, which sounds both ethically and technically virtuous, can lead to some ethically puzzling situations. Robert Frost* describes a situation in which a consultant was so empathic with a king who was unfit to rule that the king discovered his own unfitness and had himself shot, whereupon the consultant became king.

Empathy permits the development of a mutual attachment between client and consultant. The resulting relationship may be one in which their creativities are joined, a mutual growth relationship. But it may also become one in which the client becomes dependent on the consultant, so that he can be manipulated by the consultant. The ethical issues are not associated with starting where the system is, but with where one takes it.

Are the use of complacency shock, pulling out the rug of familiar structure, and two-by-four confrontation of differences violations of this rule? Of course, but they do help to determine and to reveal where the client is, sometimes at the cost of the relationship. They are often productive if the client is committed to the scene and the consultant.

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*Robert Frost, "How Hard It is To Keep From Being King When It's In You And In The Situation," from In The Clearing, pp. 74-84. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962)

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RULE III: NEVER WORK UPHILL

This is a comprehensive rule, and a number of the other rules are corollaries or examples of it. It is an appeal for an organic rather than a mechanistic approach to change, for building strength and building on strength. It has a number of implications that affect the choices the change agent makes about how to use himself, and it says something about life itself. The following are some corollaries.

RULE III, Corollary 1: Don't build hills as you go.

This corollary cautions against working in a way that builds resistance to movement in the direction you have chosen as desirable. For example, a program which has a favorable effect on one portion of a population may have the opposite effect on other portions of the population. Perhaps the commonest error of this kind has been made in the employment of T-group training in organizations -- turning on the participants and turning off the non-participants in one easy lesson.

RULE III, Corollary 2: Work in the most promising arena.

The physician-patient relationship is often regarded as analogous to consultant-client relationship. The results for system change can be unfortunate. For example, the organization development consultant is likely to be greeted with delight by executives who see in his specialty the solution to a hopeless situation in a outlying plant. Some organization development consultants have disappeared for years because of the irresistibility of such challenges. Others have whiled away their time trying to counteract the Peter Principle by shoring up incompetent managers.

RULE III, Corollary 3: Don't use one when two could do it.

To be less cryptic: don't do anything alone that could be accomplished more easily or more certainly by a team. Don Quixote is not the only change agent whose effectiveness was handicapped by ignoring this rule. The change agent's task is an heroic one, and the need to be a hero does not facilitate team-building. As a result, many change agents become "spread too thin," through failing to develop partners who can carry on the work and use the change agent's skills efficiently.

RULE III, Corollary 4: Don't over-organize.

The background of democratic ideology and the theories of participative management that many change agents possess can sometimes interfere with common sense. A year or two ago I offered a course, to be taught by graduate students. The course was over-subscribed. It seemed that a rational process for deciding whom to admit would be desirable, and that participation of the graduate students in the decision would also be desirable. So I demanded a good deal of data about themselves from the candidates for admission, and Xeroxed their responses. Then the graduate students and I held a series of meetings. Then the candidates were informed by letter of the decision. I suppose I spent ten days in this absurd process, and each of the graduate students wasted a day or two. In the end we concluded that a completely arbitrary decision rule -- like first come, first served -- would have given as good results with much less anguish for the candidates, the students and myself.

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RULE III, Corollary 5: Don't argue if you can't win.

Sometimes there is a hill in the path of change which must be confronted. Thus one may begin working with people in the middle of a power structure because they are eager to learn and to move -- working with them is not working uphill -- but the undertaking will become a hill-building exercise unless there is a strategy for gaining the support of the top of the structure. If the strategy encounters opposition rather than interest, the change agent may consider a confrontation mode for achieving his purpose. Unless he has developed a constituency of support which matches or exceeds the power that the opposition can muster, he should decide against confrontation.

RULE III, Corollary 6: Play God a little.

The change agent's life is his own, and it is as short as another man's. It is important to evaluate a given context, opportunity, or need: is it appropriate for your skills and learning needs and fulfillment? Is there as much potential for change in it as in competing opportunities? For example, the public educational system is a mess. That doesn't mean we know how to save it, or even whether it should survive. It certainly doesn't mean that the change agent is morally obligated to try to improve it, destroy it, or develop a substitute for it. If there is a moral obligation, it is to the development of his own talent and potential.

RULE IV: INNOVATION REQUIRES A GOOD IDEA, INITIATIVE AND A FEW FRIENDS

As implied above, little can be accomplished alone, and there is evidence from experiments on the effects of group pressure on individual perception to suggest that the change agent needs a partner, if only to maintain perspective and purpose.

The quality of the partner is just as important as the quality of the idea. Like the change agent, partners must be relatively autonomous people. As an example, the engineering staff of a chemical company designed a new process plant using edge-of-the-art technology. The design departed too radically from the experience of top management, and they were about to reject it. The engineering chief suggested that the design be reviewed by a distinguished chemical engineering professor. The principal designers were in fact former students of the professor. For this reason he accepted the assignment, charged the company a fee for reviewing the design (which he did not trouble to examine), and told the management the design was brilliantly conceived and executed. By this means the engineers not only implemented their innovations, but also grew in the esteem of their management.

A change agent experienced in the Washington environment reports that he knows of only one case of successful interdepartmental collaboration in mutually designing, funding and carrying through a joint project. It was accomplished through the informal collaboration of four bright young men, one from each of four agencies. They were friends, and met weekly for lunch. They conceived the project, and planned a strategy for implementing it. Each person undertook to interest and influence the relevant key people in his own agency, and the four served one another as consultants and helpers in developing ways of bringing this influence to bear in each agency.

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An alternative statement of Rule IV is as follows: Find the people who are ready and able to work, introduce them to one another, and work with them. Perhaps because many change agents have been trained in the helping professions, perhaps because we have all been trained to think bureaucratically, or mechanistically, concepts like organizational position, representativeness or need are likely to guide the change agent's selection of those he works with. A more powerful beginning can be made by finding those persons in the system whose values are congruent with those of the change agent, who possess vitality and imagination, who are willing to work overtime, and who are eager to learn. Such people are usually glad to have someone like the change agent join in getting something important accomplished, and a careful search is likely to turn up quite a few. In fact, there may be enough of them to accomplish general system change, if they can team up in appropriate ways. In building such teamwork the change agent's abilities will be fully challenged, as he joins them in establishing conditions for trust and creativity, dealing with anxieties about being seen as subversive, enhancing leadership, consulting, problem-solving, diagnosing and innovating skills, and developing appropriate group norms and policies.

Certain norms and policies appear to be important for, even critical for, group effectiveness. The group may have projects which eventuate in legitimized formal bodies, but it should not act as part of the power structure. Any undertaking of the group should be the property of one of its members, with others in support roles. In planning strategies which involve coordinated action on the part of several members, no member should be bound by the decisions emerging from consultation, but should adapt his behavior according to what he finds in the action scene.

RULE V: LOAD EXPERIMENTS FOR SUCCESS

This sounds like counsel to avoid risk-taking. But the decision to experiment always entails risk. After that decision has been made, take all precautions.

The rule also sounds scientifically immoral. But whether an experiment produces the expected results depends on the experimenter's depth of insight into the conditions and processes involved. Of course, what is experimental is what is new to the system; it may or may not be new to the change agent.

Build an umbrella over the experiment. A chemical process plant which was to be shut down because of the inefficiency of its operations undertook a union-management cooperation effort to improve efficiency, which involved a modified form of profit-sharing. Such plans were contrary to company policy, but the manufacturing vice president at headquarters was interested in the experiment, and successfully concealed it from his associates. The experiment was successful: the plant became profitable. In this case, the umbrella turned out not to be big enough. The plant was shut down anyway.

Use the Hawthorne effect. Even inadequately conceived experiments are often made to succeed when the participants feel ownership. And conversely, one of the obstacles to the spread of useful innovations is that participants are not likely to feel ownership of them.

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Build on strength. For example, if the change agent hopes to use laboratory training as part of his strategy, the first persons to be invited should be those who consistently turn all their experiences into constructive learning. Similarly, in introducing team development processes to a system, begin with the best functioning team.

Maintain voluntarism. This is not easy to do in systems where invitations are understood to be commands, but nothing vital can be built on such motives as duty, obedience or responsiveness to social pressure.

RULE VI: LIGHT MANY FIRES

Not only does a large, monolithic development or change program have high visibility and other qualities of a good target, it also tends to prevent subsystems from developing ownership of, and consequent commitment to, the program.

The positive implication of the rule is more orderly than the random prescription -- light many fires -- suggests. Any part of a system is the way it is partly because of the way the rest of the system is. To work towards change in one subsystem is to become one more determinant of its performance. Not only is the change agent working uphill, but as soon as he turns his back, other forces in the system will press the subsystem back towards its previous level of performance.

If many interdependent subsystems are catalyzed, and the change agent brings them together to facilitate one another's efforts, the entire system begins to move.

Understanding patterns of interdependency among subsystems can lead to a strategy of fire-setting. For example, in public school systems it requires collaboration among politicians, administrators, teachers, parents and students to bring about significant innovation, and active opposition on the part of only one of these groups to prevent it. In parochial school systems, on the other hand, collaboration between the administration and the church provides a powerful impetus for change in the other groups.

RULE VII: KEEP AN OPTIMISTIC BIAS

Our society grinds along with much polarization and cruelty, and even the helping professions compose their world of grim problems to be "worked through." The change agent is usually flooded with the destructive aspects of the situations he enters. People in most systems are impressed with one another's weaknesses, and stereotype each other with such incompetencies as they can discover.

This rule does not advise ignoring destructive forces. Its positive prescription is that the change agent be especially alert to the constructive forces which are often masked and suppressed in a problem oriented, envious culture.

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People have as great an innate capacity for joy as for resentment, but resentment causes them to overlook opportunities for joy. In a workshop where a married couple were discussing their sexual problem and how hard they were working on it, it became clear that it would never be solved, simply because sex is not a problem but an opportunity.

Individuals and groups locked in destructive kinds of conflict focus on their differences. The change agent's job is to help them discover and build on their commonalities. The unhappy partners focus on past wrongs, and continue to destroy the present and future with them. The change agent's job is to help them change the present so that they will have a new past on which to create a future.

RULE VIII: CAPTURE THE MOMENT

A good sense of timing is often treated as though it were a "gift" or "intuition," rather than something that can be learned, something spontaneous rather than something planned. The opposite is nearer the truth. One captures the moment when everything one has learned is readily available, and when one is in touch with the events of the moment.

A few years ago my wife and I were having a very destructive fight. Our nine-year old daughter decided to intervene. She put her arms around her mother, and asked: "What does Daddy do that bugs you?" She was an attentive audience for the next few minutes while my wife told her, ending in tears. She then put her arms around me: "What does Mummy do that bugs you?" and listened attentively to my response, which also ended in tears. She then went to the record player, and put on a favorite love song ("If Ever I Should Leave You"), and left us alone to make up.

The elements of my daughter's intervention had all been learned. They were simply available to her, and she combined them in a way what could make the moment better.

Perhaps it's our training in linear cause-and-effect thinking that makes us unable to see the multiple potential of the moment. Whatever the reason, the solution is not to enter the situation blank, and hope that spontaneous action will move it forward. It is not enough for the change agent to have a plan or strategy. He needs as many plans as possible. It's not enough for him to have a framework for diagnosis; he needs many frameworks. It's not enough to involve his head in the system; he has to let his heart be involved too. If he has full access to his organized experience, to himself, and to the situation, he is free to be spontaneous -- and capture the moment.

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What is Anticipatory DEMOCRACY?

by Alvin Toffler

Noted futurist author Alvin Toffler, the originator of the term "anticipatory democracy," here explains what it is and what he thinks it can accomplish. Toffler believes that democratic political systems face two crucial problems today—lack of future-consciousness and lack of citizen participation. Anticipatory democracy is designed to cope with both these problems simultaneously.

Anticipatory democracy is a process—a way of reaching decisions that determine our future. It can be used to help us regain control over tomorrow.

Two crucial problems endanger the stability and survival of our political system today.

First: *Lack of future-consciousness.* Instead of anticipating the problems and opportunities of the future, we lurch from crisis to crisis. The energy shortage, runaway inflation, ecological troubles—all reflect the failure of our political leaders at federal, state, and local levels to look beyond the next election. Our political system is "future-blind." With but few exceptions, the same failure of foresight marks our corporations, trade unions, schools, hospitals, voluntary organizations, and communities as well. The result is political and social future shock.

Second: *Lack of participation.* Our government and other institutions have grown so large and complicated that most people feel powerless. They complain of being "planned upon." They are seldom consulted or asked for ideas about their own future. On the rare occasions when they are, it is ritualistic rather than real consultation. Blue-collar workers, poor people, the elderly, the youth, even the affluent among us, feel frozen out of the decision process. And as more and more millions feel powerless, the danger of violence and authoritarianism increases.

Moreover, if this is true within the country, it is even more true of the world situation in which the previously powerless are demanding the right to participate in shaping the global future.

Anticipatory democracy (A/D) is a way to tackle both these critical problems simultaneously. It connects up future-consciousness with real participation.

Thus the term "anticipatory" stresses the need for greater attention to the long-range future. The term "democracy" stresses the need for vastly increased popular participation and feedback.

There is no single or magical way to build a truly anticipatory democracy. In general, we need to support any program or action that increases future-awareness in the society, while simultaneously creating new channels for genuine, broad-based citizen participation. This means, among other things, an emphasis not on "elite" or "technocratic" futures work, but on mass involvement. We certainly need experts and specialists; they are indispensable, in fact. But in an anticipatory democracy, goals are not set by elites or experts alone. Thus, where futures activity exists, we need to open it to all sectors of society, making a special effort to involve women, the

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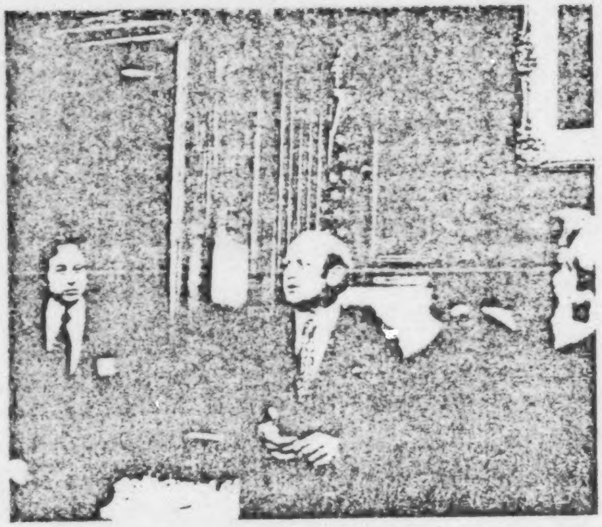

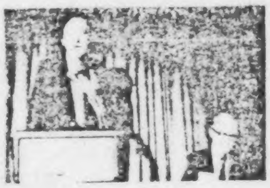

Alvin Toffler appears at a recent congressional meeting on future thinking. Speaking is Senator John C. Culver, an Iowa Democrat who is a leading advocate of futurism in Congress.

Photo: Sally W. Cornish

poor, working people, minority groups, young and old—and to involve them at all levels of leadership as well. Conversely, where participatory activities exist at community, state, or federal levels, or within various corporate or voluntary organizations, we need to press for attention to longer-range futures.

A/D Activities Take Many Forms

Anticipatory democracy may take many different forms, including the following:

1. Creation of city or statewide "2000" organizations. These bring thousands of citizens together to help define long-range goals. These goals are sometimes then embodied in legislation. Examples include Hawaii 2000, Iowa 2000, and Alternatives for Washington—all three at the state level; Seattle 2000 at the city level. Some sort of "2000" activity has been identified in over 20 states.

2. Certain important movements in American society are inherently pro-participative; they work to open the society to the full participation of women, ethnic minorities, the elderly, the poor, or others who are frequently excluded from decision processes in the system. Working with these movements to introduce greater future-consciousness, more attention to long-term goals, awareness of new technologies or social trends that may impact on them, contributes to the spread of A/D.

3. Media feedback programs. Radio and TV audiences are seldom given a chance to voice *their* views—particularly about the future. The use of TV, radio, cable TV, cassette, the print media and other communications systems to present alternative futures and provide channels for audience feedback simultaneously increases both participation and future consciousness.

4. Congressional reform. Passage of a "foresight provision" (HR 988) in the U.S. House of Representives now for the first time requires that most standing committees engage in futures research and long-range analysis. By strengthening the Congress vis a vis the Executive Branch, it increases the potential for democratic participation as well. For example, anticipatory democracy organizations like Alternatives for Washington or Iowa 2000 could systematically feed citizens' views on the future into foresight discussions in Congress. We need "foresight provisions" in the Senate, and in state legislatures and city councils as well.

5. Community Action Programs. Nearly 900 CAPs exist in all parts of the nation. Aimed at combatting poverty, they all involve some form of participatory planning, often neighborhood based. Attempts to strengthen participation and to extend planning beyond the short term also help the move toward anticipatory democracy.

6. Referenda. There are many ways to link referenda to long-term future issues. (The British just made a long-range decision to stay in the Common Market—and relied on the referenda to tell Parliament how the country felt on the issue.)

7. Steps aimed at involving workers, consumers, minorities, women, and community groups in decision-making in industry and government—when linked to long-term planning—further the process of A/D. The Congressional Office of Technology Assessment, for example, has an active Citizens Advisory panel that becomes deeply involved in decisions about the very long-range effects of new technologies. Movements for worker participation or self-management in industry, for consumer watchdog agencies, for participatory management can all be encouraged to become more future-conscious. Unless participation affects the planning process, it has little impact.

8. Futurizing the programs of organizations like the Young Women's Christian Association, the Red Cross, or the National Education Association—to choose three at random—helps spread the necessary awareness through the network of existing voluntary organizations.

9. Opening up global or transnational organizations to greater participation and future-consciousness. The United Nations conferences, especially the informal meetings that occur

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simultaneously with them, are opportunities for introducing A/D on the global scale. Such conferences as those devoted to the law of the sea in Caracas, population in Bucharest, environment in Stockholm, food in Rome, women in Mexico City, and the forthcoming one on human settlements in Vancouver are events at which globally-oriented people and non-governmental organizations with local constituencies can get together to exchange information and strategies, and to influence formal policy.

10. Creation of participatory planning mechanisms within community organizations. For example, bringing the entire membership of a church, or a

"A system break of some kind is coming; a new civilization is beginning to emerge."

"There is a tremendous amount of pent-up political emotion in this country. People feel that the future is being bumbled away."

Possible A/D Programs

Members of Alvin Toffler's A/D (Anticipatory Democracy) Network compiled the following list of possible A/D activities. They emphasize that these are some possibilities—not necessarily recommendations. It is up to *you* to decide whether any of them are appropriate. You may want to adapt them or, better yet, invent your own!

- Visit your city council or state legislature and urge passage of a "foresight provision" modelled after H.R. 988 in the House of Representatives.
- Set up "futurist consciousness teams" to attend political rallies and meetings. These teams would ask speakers to explain what effect their proposed programs might have on, say, the year 1985 or 2000. By pressing for a discussion of long-range consequences, the entire political discussion is raised to a higher level. Another question that can be asked: "If we don't really know what effect your proposal will have by 1985, what procedures ought we to be following to find out?"

- Phone a radio talk show and suggest a program on the future, inviting listeners to suggest goals for the community over the next 15 or 25-year period. Such shows have already been tried out in San Diego, Dallas, Atlanta, New Orleans, and other cities. A good response can be used to get interested listeners together to form an A/D group.

- Contact the city or state planning agency and suggest citizen participation activities like Alternatives for Washington. Provide the agency with the names of individuals who will take the initiative in organizing these activities, and sources of information on previous activities of this kind.

- Get a group of futurists to visit the nearest Community Action Agency or Community Action Program and ask: 1. What the futurists can offer in the way of methods, insights, perspectives. 2. What the futurists can learn from community experiences with public participation in planning.

- Organize speaking teams for community groups that express an interest in A/D or futurism.

- Working with your local Bicentennial planning group, arrange for an anticipatory democracy booth at local events. Use booth to distribute A/D literature, but also to get ideas and criticism about the future of your community from the public.

- Approach major companies in your area and ask them to make public in at least a general sense their plans for new investment, jobs, technologies, etc. Publicize their reactions as well as their plans. Ask to what degree consumers, employees or public officials were consulted in drawing up the plans.

- Place ballot boxes in local supermarkets, shopping centers or movies, with ballots asking passers-by to check off the three things they most like and the three things they most dislike about the community. Pass findings to local press and relevant officials. What are they doing now to preserve the good and eradicate the bad by 1985?
- Organize an open discussion of long-term goals in a church or synagogue to define its purposes in relation to the community over a 10 to 25-year period.
- Working with doctors, the nursing association, and other community health groups, try to organize a community-wide "health plebescite," asking, through the mass media and other channels, for ordinary people to tell what they think is wrong, and what they think will be needed to improve health services by 1985. Compare their priorities with the local health budget.
- Approach parent-teacher associations, teachers' organizations, and students to run an Education 1985 or Education 2000 Conference through which parents and teachers, as well as professionals, have a chance to voice problems, hopes and fears about the future and to suggest ways of futurizing education.

Anticipatory democracy is not a single "thing"—it is a process. It can be created in a wide variety of ways. It's up to you to create your own.

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broadly representative group of parents, teachers and students in a school, or patients, medical staff and service employees in a hospital into the planning process advances anticipatory democracy. Provided the process is truly participatory and the time horizon reaches beyond, say, 10 years, it strengthens A and helps educate people to play a more active role in the national political system as well.

11. Democratizing the World Future Society through expanding its membership to include groups now underrepresented, and to assure fully democratic internal procedures is yet another step in the direction of A/D. Preventing futurism from becoming prematurely academicized or superprofessionalized helps avoid its use as a tool for mystification of the public.

These are all examples of A/D activity. They are not given in any order of precedence, but they reflect the diversity of possibilities. Dozens more could no doubt be cited. We need to *invent* many additional kinds of A/D activity. This will require the help of millions of people from every discipline, from every walk of life, every profession, ethnic and class background. A democracy that doesn't anticipate the future cannot survive. A society that is good at anticipating but allows the future to be captured by elites is no longer a democracy. As we move into the future, anticipatory democracies will be the only surviving kind.

Alvin Toffler is the author of *Future Shock* and *The Eco-Spasm Report*. For more information on his anticipatory democracy network, write to: Alvin Toffler, c/o A/D Network, 34 W. 13th Street, New York, New York 10011

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Toffler Speaks on Futurism in Politics

"What I call 'the general crisis of industrial society' has hit the global economic system."

America's continued economic problems have caused many people to reevaluate their opposition to long-term planning. But government and industry are still under the influence of an industrial mentality which assumes that planning must be centralized and hierarchical. *Future Shock* author Alvin Toffler believes that the multichannel super-industrial society now evolving will require a flexible, decentralized planning process open to ordinary people as well as experts.

The future of futurism in politics was the subject of futurist Alvin Toffler's speech at the closing session of the World Future Society's Second General Assembly, held in Washington, D.C., June 2-5, 1975.

Toffler identified two fundamental changes that are occurring in the United States:

1. The American people are tired of management-by-crisis. Disturbed by the energy crisis, they are developing a more positive attitude toward planning.

2. Americans are beginning to feel that they are not in control of their political institutions. Millions of Americans now think that the political institutions are obsolete and that new, participatory ones are needed.

Toffler attributed these shifts in the public mood mainly to the country's recent economic problems. He offered the following analysis of the economic situation:

"The economic crisis reveals how totally obsolete our conventional economic models and stabilizers are. Many of the structures that we created for stabilizing the economy are essentially aimed at preventing a repetition of 1929 or 1933 when that is no longer the problem that faces us. They were designed at a time when we did not have $180 billion in trans-national currency called 'eurodollars' floating around the world system. They were designed at a time when we did not have very powerful multi- and trans-national corporations and institutions. They were designed at a time when conditions were more or less uniform (as they tend to be in traditional industrial societies). I believe what is happening now is a deep intensification of the general crisis of industrial society. A system-break of some kind is coming; a new civilization is beginning to emerge. We don't know the outlines, but we know that something fundamental is happening. What I call 'the general crisis of industrial society' has hit the global economic system."

"We need people who can see straight ahead and deep into the problems. Those are the experts. But we also need peripheral vision and experts are generally not very good at providing peripheral vision."

The breakdown of industrialism, said Toffler, is much larger than the breakdown of capitalism or socialism. "Industrialism is a culture, a package, a civilization. Mass production, mass distribution, and technology are fundamental parts of it, but it is also dependent upon other systems—mass education, mass media, the money system. All industrial societies share bureaucratic forms of industrialization, top-down hierarchical forms of organization. All industrial societies essentially share a materialistic value system. All industrial societies, by and large, are dependent on the nuclear family. All industrial societies are addicted to fossil fuels and all industrial societies, whether communist or capitalist, Japanese or Swedish, share certain epistemological assumptions about time, space, causation, certain conceptual models about how society works. Put those all together and you have a culture. And it is that culture which I think is now unraveling—and that may well be the best news that the planet has had in about 300 years."

Bureaucracies Are Obsolete

The demise of industrialism is no cause for pessimism, Toffler insisted, because industrialism assumed that "certain types of structures could handle all the basic decisions necessary to manage the society." But those structures—bureaucracy, parliamentary democracy, and centralized planning—are breaking down today. Bureaucracies work best in a routine, orderly, predictable environment, but we no longer have such an environment. Centralized planning has shown serious weaknesses and even the communist countries are trying to decentralize the planning process because of the enormous information overload at the top levels." Parliamentary democracy is now under severe attack in all of the industrial countries, mostly because of obsolete structures which "were products of the industrial revolution and reflect an industrial mentality."

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>
> *-Alvin Toffler*

Acceleration is one of the key features of the super-industrial revolution, Toffler declared. Events are occurring so fast that we forget them before we have had a chance to learn from them. Some of our basic assumptions about the electoral process are being challenged by this rapid change. Toffler explained one such challenge:

"We believe, for example, that we should elect congressmen from geographical districts. But this assumption was born of an agricultural era when people were rooted to the land and the land was the most important factor of production. The assumption there is that if you don't like what your representative has done in the last two years, you can vote him out. The assumption on which the system was based never took into account the possibility that 42 million Americans would change their residences each year and that I may not be able to vote against my congressman because I am no longer in his district. And now he faces a new constituency which knows little or nothing about his past record." This fluid situation increases the difficulty of forming lasting political coalitions.

The other key feature of the super-industrial revolution, Toffler asserted, is "a shift from industrial standardization and homogeneity to heterogeneity and destandardization. We are becoming a much more diverse society based on new, more diverse technological bases, more varied occupational specialties, different lifestyles, conflicting value systems, differentiated age-groupings in the society, and a renewed ethnicization in the United States. We are becoming what the Japanese call a multichannel society."

This diversification is happening in all the industrial countries, often taking the form of secessionist movements, notably in Canada, France, and the United Kingdom.

Although politicians are lamenting the loss of unity and consensus, Toffler insisted that the shift to super-industrial diversity is "a fundamental survival shift," which, unfortunately, has caused problems that "our weak and fragile institutions can no longer solve." While the result has been fragmentation, dissension, and conflict, Toffler pointed out that "diversity can be based on symbiosis as well as clash and conflict." The overload on our decision-making systems has created a political malaise that could lead to a new kind of fascism. But the possibility also exists of "a major leap forward to a more decent ecologically balanced, equitable, and democratic society."

Radically Different Planning Is Needed

To achieve this breakthrough, Toffler suggested, we must break free of the industrial mentality which has been reasonably effective for the past 300 years, but is no longer applicable in many new situations. He explained how that industrial mentality has particularly affected the nature of planning:

"We have seen, in the history of planning, continual efforts to standardize information, to centralize it, to concentrate power, to embrace larger and larger units or systems within the plan and to add experts. All of that adds up to industrial-style planning, technocratic planning. This industrial mentality is now being challenged by an alternative consciousness. It is being challenged not only by angry people who might be called 'plannees'—people who are planned upon—but by many people who do not know they are plannees. In fact, we are all consumers-of-plans, and consumer revolt will continue to occur as more and more of the life-support systems in this society begin to break down. Technocratic planning, like bureaucracy, is designed for undifferentiated or simple industrial societies and for slow-change conditions. But the U.S. is no longer a traditional industrial society, let alone a simple one. Hence we need a radically different approach to planning."

Integrated coordination of planning at the national level is needed, Toffler conceded, but "we need to realize that the nation-state may no longer be the single or most appropriate focus for a lot of this activity. We are going to need subnational planning on a decentralized basis, sectoral planning, institutional planning. We are going to need custom-tailored, continually flexible and changing plans, and those cannot be custom-tailored from the top. Moreover, nations are becoming less and less independent of one another and therefore we are

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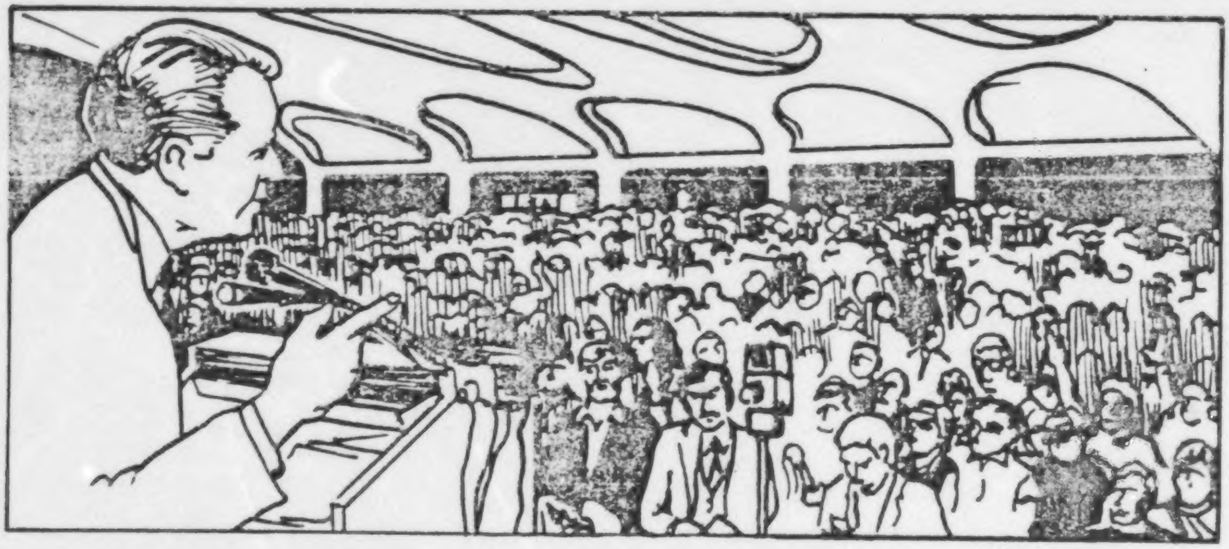

"The sexual mores, family structures, and value systems of the society impinge on the economic system and alter it in sometimes much more important ways than are trackable in any of our econometric models and fancy input-output systems."

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going to need to have transnational inputs into that planning process."

Toffler also warned against economic planning which fails to take into account social, cultural, and political problems. He declared that "the sexual mores, family structures, and value systems of the society impinge on the economic system and alter it in sometimes much more important ways than are trackable in any of our econometric models and fancy input-output systems."

Ordinary People Can Help Planners

Although we need experts, ways must be found to involve ordinary people in the planning process. Toffler used the analogy of the human eye to describe what is needed:

"We need people who can see straight ahead and deep into the problems. Those are the experts. But we also need peripheral vision and experts are generally not very good at providing peripheral vision. And I would suggest that what we need is a whole set of new ways of relating 'experts'—people who have Ph.D.s and specialized expertise—and lay-experts—those who are extremely expert about their little piece of the environment, which may turn out to be very important to the rest of us as well."

As we shift from industrialism to super-industrialism, Toffler suggested, network forms of organization will supplant pyramidal-bureaucratic forms. The networks will have to be participatory, Toffler insisted, and state planning programs like Hawaii 2000, Iowa 2000, and Alternatives for Washington could serve as initial models for such "anticipatory democracy" networks.

Expressing satisfaction that businessmen and government officials are joining the public in taking long-term planning more seriously, Toffler nevertheless confessed to a nervous feeling "when I see big business, big government, and big unions all agreeing on something."

Toffler closed his speech with a warning that "there is a tremendous amount of pent-up political emotion in this country. People feel that the future is being bumbled away. And for this reason I believe we are entering into the most exciting and turbulent period in the history of planning, in the history of the United States, in the history of industrial society, in the history of the globe. And unless we prove to be highly inventive social innovators, unless we begin to invent models that open those channels, we will attempt to apply yesterday's obsolete methods to tomorrow's problems, with disastrous results for democracy." He concluded with a plea to all futurists to help in finding ways to "destandardize, decentralize, deconcentrate, descale, and democratize planning."

AGENCY COLLABORATION IN PLANNING AND SERVICE *

Today's Issues and Conditions--
Some Underlying Principles

INTRODUCTION

The Centennial Forum designed so that all of us, participants and presenters alike, have an active part in the deliberations is an intriguing idea. It provides a congenial setting within which to examine organizational structures and processes and their renewal. We are in the process of building a new system or new patterns in a renewing system. A centennial is a time for celebration and for reflection; for looking back and for looking forward; for probing our achievements and for clarifying the tasks before us in the fields of human service and welfare.

This workshop on collaboration in planning and service is designed to examine issues in specific situations--collaboration in developing new programs, collaboration in reaching a particular target group, and collaboration in meeting a community crisis through the use of temporary organizational systems. It is my privilege to introduce the session by highlighting today's issues and conditions --and some underlying principles.

Following this brief presentation three groups will look at collaboration in the specific situations. Actual cases will be analyzed and an attempt made to identify and report to the total group the most salient considerations in attempting to achieve collaboration in these situations.

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*Presentation by Edward O. Moe at a workshop with the same title, National Conference on Social Welfare, Centennial Forum, Atlantic City, New Jersey, May 31, 1973.

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The major points on which I would like to comment are these:

I. Past-Present Achievements in Organization--The Setting for the "Issues on Collaboration."

II. Some Assumptions about Organizations and Collaboration Among Organizations.

III. Some Selected Research Findings.

IV. Organizational Alternatives--Levels of Cooperation and Collaboration.

Following the reports of the groups we can look at some of the principles which support inter-agency collaboration and which, when taken into account, increase the probabilities of success.

I. PAST AND PRESENT ACHIEVEMENTS IN ORGANIZATION-- THE SETTING FOR THE ISSUES ON COLLABORATION

To put contemporary society and the human community in perspective, one must keep in mind, first of all, that our society benefits from and suffers from a tremendous explosion in knowledge, particularly scientific knowledge and the technologies related thereto.

This knowledge explosion is the basis for the industrial, urban, and bureaucratic revolutions in the modern world. It is these forces--industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization--which have produced a new society, and the communities of today and tomorrow. It is these forces, also, which provide the context within which attempts to deal with the problems of society, the community, and human services must be conceived. The effects of these forces pervade every aspect of life.

A Way of Conceptualizing Problems in Communities

It is now evident also that one of the significant achievements of American society and American communities has become a substantial weakness--that is, the creation of specialized competence and the placing of this competence in specialized organizations and agencies. This came about in a natural and seemingly ordered way

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in both the public and private sectors. What has not been recognized until very recently is that the development and provision of specialized competence has led to three classical forms of isolation and estrangement:

1. The separation and isolation of agencies from each other.
2. The separation and isolation from the community.
3. The estrangement of agencies from both the people they serve and those they might potentially serve.

Many factors have contributed to this isolation. Once agencies were established they became possessive of programs and areas of work. These were their "property" and they were defensive about any intrusion by other agencies or by the community. At the same time, the community and other agencies more or less assigned responsibility for particular programs to an agency. Frequently the community was pleased to be rid of it as a general responsibility.

The isolation of agencies from each other and from the community, together with specialization and professionalization of the agency staffs, led to an estrangement from the people served or to be served. This estrangement was further increased by conceptions of the helping function which tended to force people receiving help into a paralyzing passivity.

What has emerged within each community, then, is an enormously complex array of specialized organizations, programs, and services with a built-in dilemma of major proportions. On the one hand, there is the array of public and private services with inter-connections between the local and national levels; and on the other, both at the community and national levels, there is difficulty in relating these services to each other in such a way that an effective attack can be made on significant problems. These problems may be rehabilitation, alcoholism, poverty, drug abuse, unemployment, education, or youth services, or they may be the composite difficulties confronting neighborhoods or communities. In either case, the problems usually transcend the services of any specific organization and demand the cooperation and articulation of many services and the work of many agencies.

Not only is this a major difficulty for individuals and communities, it is also a problem for the agencies offering the services. Under conditions which now exist, it is impossible for an agency working alone to achieve its own program objectives however great its resources may be. To be effective, each must actively relate what it does to the work of other agencies and organizations. The dynamic properties of the situation "arise not simply from the interaction of the component organizations," observe Emery and Trist (1965) "but also from the field itself. The ground is in motion."

While it is quite clear that this is what is needed--or even demanded--if constructive efforts at improving the quality of human services are to be made, agencies and their staffs find themselves trapped. Agency executives and staff members talk eloquently of cooperation and coordination, but efforts to achieve these conditions are frequently weak to the point of futility.

National, State, Local Relationships: A Systems View of Organization

Let us turn our attention for a moment to that aspect of the problem complicated by national, state, and local relationships. We cannot consider action at the local level apart from the relationships and mechanisms through which the functions and services of national parts of organizations are delivered to their local counterparts. One of the most promising, a complicated yet simple, way of viewing organization at various levels is to view what we have created at each level as a system. At the local level, for example, a chapter or unit of a national organization, whether public or private, is in many respects a system in its own right. It develops out of its purposes, the interaction of the people who compose it, the things these people have built around themselves, and the character of their inter-relation to the community of which they are a part, to their State and region and to the national organization of which they are a part.

The local unit of a national organization is not only a system in its own right, it is also a sub-system or a sub-part of the community and a sub-system or a sub-part of a national organization. Those of us who have had experience in rational organization, and I presume that includes all of us here, are aware of the subtleties, the intricacies, and the nuances in the relationships of local units to communities and national organizations as they attempt to meet their own goals, and as they attempt to function as a sub-part of a community and as a sub-part of a national organization. There are long established patterns in systems in these three contexts of playing one relationship against the other. There is also on occasion, the kind of cooperation which brings great credit to our pluralistic, federated approach.

Some Restraining Forces and Blocks to Collaboration

There is substantial concurrence between research and experience as to the major restraining forces and blocks to collaboration. Some of the major ones are:

1. The organizational setting itself.
    a. Climate of competition, conflict, distrust, suspicion.
    b. Continuing competition for funds, people, leadership, position.
    c. Concern about survival or loss of organizational identity with high involvement and commitment to one's own organization.
2. Lack of clarity in the goals of collaborative ventures.
    a. Failure to clarify the field or the problem on which there is to be collaboration.
    b. Confusion as to who is to be served.
3. Concern over authority and control.
4. Concern as to whether gains for our organization and for the people to be served will be as great as the costs.
5. Inadequate, outdated or ignored informal and formal agreements among organizations.

6. Lack of organizational commitment including concern about collaboration as a high risk venture--an invitation to share failure.
7. Poor communications practices.
8. Lack of skill in working out and implementing collaborative relationships and agreements, and lack of sensitivity and skill in implementing such relationships.
9. Greater than anticipated time demands.
10. Unwise use of "pressure" or "clout" to force collaboration.
11. Tendency for collaborative or umbrella groups to take over member organizations work.
12. Inadequate means of assessing impact of collaborative activities.

This is an imposing list of restraints and blocks. Criticism of agencies and services over the past decade has tended to stress the constraints and restraints. It is likely that researchers and practitioners have overlooked or failed to identify many of the linking and collaborative relationships between and among organizations. Lists such as the one above do not tell the whole story.

II. SOME ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT ORGANIZATIONS AND COLLABORATION AMONG ORGANIZATIONS

One of the major difficulties in interpreting and assessing research and experience on inter-organizational relationships is to ascertain the assumptions that are made. Aldrich (1970) identified three that tend to encourage such study. The first is that cooperative relations are "good." Two specific reasons are cited. Performance is thought to be higher and resources used more efficiently when there is non-duplication of services, an outcome of cooperative relations. A second major assumption is that innovations are developed when organizations attempt to cooperate. (Aiken and Hage, 1968; Levine and Associates, 1963). The third assumption is that agreements, overlapping boards and joint actions by organizations are the best ways to deal with the changing organizational, community, State and federal relationships. In many respects these assumptions attempt to answer the questions for which research is undertaken.

Klonglan and his associates at Iowa State University (1972) made explicit another level of assumptions. They attempt to clarify the conditions, and the limitations confronted in collaboration. They identify a number of studies which illustrate each of the following assumptions:

1. "Organizations are faced with a situation of limited resources."
2. "Organizations must obtain resources from other units in their task environment."
3. "Drawing on outside resources reduces an organization's authority."
4. "Organizations prefer autonomy and engage in interaction only when resource needs cannot be met within the unit."
5. "Organizations prefer low level inter-organizational relations and will engage in higher level relations only after lower levels have failed to fulfill their resource needs."
6. "Different levels of inter-organizational relations can be ordered in terms of form and intensity of interactions."

This set of assumptions is helpful in understanding the state of the art and state of research in inter-organizational relationships.

III. SOME RESEARCH FINDINGS

It was more or less inevitable that the increase in research on organizations and organization processes over the past quarter of a century would identify inter-organizational fields and inter-organizational relationships as significant areas of study (Heydebrand 1971). These areas have emerged also as major concerns of practitioners. This session is one indication of this.

Research and scholarly writing on organizations have clarified two perspectives within which collaboration can be examined. In one perspective collaboration is a dependent variable; it is the outcome of action and interaction among other variables. A second perspective is to view collaboration as an independent variable which has impact on:

1. Availability and quality of services to various populations.
2. Recipients of services--their behavior, their attitudes, their knowledge.
3. Organizations and their internal structures and processes.
4. Relationships with other organizations--changes in the form, content and quantity of such relations.
5. Communities, the inter-organizational fields, and the changes in structure and processes such as the determination of priorities, decision-making, the allocation of resources and the formalization of collaborative activities.

The very brief review of research findings centers on the impact questions. Klonglan and his associates at Iowa State (1969) studied the outcomes or effects on 400 persons in alcohol programs in four communities and related outcomes to the amount of collaboration among the organizations involved. The findings were mixed. In three communities, the greater the amount of inter-organizational relations the greater the client outcome. But the community with the highest score on inter-organizational relations had the lowest client outcome score.

Richards and Goudy (1971) studied resident perceptions of the effect of a Model Cities Program on coordination among agencies. Residents saw no increase in coordination.

Aiken and Hage (1968) assessed the effects of interdependence among organizations on intra-organizational structure. Interdependence tended to increase complexity in organizational structure, to increase organizational innovations, to develop more internal communication channels, and to decentralize decision making. Price (1968) studied the effects of one organization co-opting members from other organizations to serve on advisory boards. Organizations which followed this practice were found to be more effective than those which did not do so. Sriram

(1969) found a significant positive relationship in over 300 organizations between strong inter-organizational relationships and organizational effectiveness. Form and Nosow (1958) found somewhat the opposite in their study of Communities In Disaster, in which organizations which were autonomous tended to be most effective. Hall (1972) found that external pressures on organizations for interaction with other organizations has beneficial effects. It tended to increase communications and interaction among members, produce greater commitment, result in more exercise of authority at various levels, and an increase in cohesiveness among members.

Studies by Griffen and his associates (1972) and Dynes and Quarantelli (1969) found that the more cooperation and collaboration among organizations, the more effective the recovery of a community after a disaster. These findings are very different from the Form-Nosow findings mentioned above. It is likely that the difference in time may be significant. The ground is in motion as Emery and Trist observed. Under today's conditions there is much evidence to support the conclusion that no organization, however many resources it may have at its disposal, can achieve its objectives working solely on its own. Achievement of significant ends, viewed both from the perspective of organizations and from that of the community, requires collaboration.

IV. ORGANIZATION ALTERNATIVES--LEVELS OF COOPERATION AND COLLABORATION

The present high interest in relationships among organizations and agencies as units or parts of the community--both as to what they are and what they might be--is influenced by two significant insights. The first concerns the nature of the problems people confront. The second concerns the nature of the response of organizations and agencies, and whether or not the responses are both comprehensive enough and specific enough to make a difference. Communities are the least reducible units within which to see problems whole, and to relate education and services in the attempt to resolve them.

Piece-meal and fragmented approaches in attempting to produce an environment of quality or to set the conditions for quality living have had limited success. Some significant gains have been made in setting up comprehensive physical planning programs, health programs, and rehabilitation programs, among others. What is needed now is to conceive of comprehensiveness on a more inclusive basis--a basis which would (Moe 1969):

> encompass the life of people in a limited area--a community, or in some cases, a neighborhood--as it is actually lived and which would see problems as wholes, the way they are experienced, as well as in parts, the way services usually work at resolving them;
>
> adequately recognize the interrelationships between the social, physical, economic and political-governmental factors in problems and solutions;
>
> involve the residents of neighborhoods with professionals and specialists in public and private agencies in both clarifying problems and developing ways of attacking them.

In this sense, agencies, their staffs, and the people are trapped and victimiz

Despite the basic separation and estrangement between agencies and the people, despite the existence of fantastically complex problems in cooperation and coordination, the building of the array of specialized organizations and agencies is still a major achievement. The question is what we will do with the organizations now that we have them. Imaginative new ways of relating an agency and what it does to the work of others are needed. What we urgently need are new ways of building comprehensive programs and implementing them, utilizing the best that we know.

This leads, then, to a look at alternatives.

Alternatives in Organizational Patterns

Over time there has emerged in the American community a large number of "community decision organizations" (Warren 1967). Community decision organizations are those such as community councils, health and welfare councils, community services councils, urban renewal organizations, anti-poverty organizations, civil defense and disaster relief alliances, housing authorities, youth bureaus and authorities, model cities and model neighborhood organizations, federations of churches, city and county health and welfare departments--the list is very long. In varying degrees, these community decision organizations have become the legitimized means in the attempt to carry out policy decisions and programs in various areas.

Each of the decision organizations has sought and has won the support of influential people. Each has a director or executive director who has earned a varying amount of influence and respect. Counterparts of most of the community decision organizations exist at the national level. It is now clear that neither at the community nor at the national level have we attained the kind of joint decision making and joint action needed to deal realistically with the problems we confront.

Despite all of the efforts at cooperation to date, including the growing body of evidence as to their effectiveness, the actions of a single organization or unitary organization, incomplete as they may be, are still seen by many to be more satisfying than joint actions. The time demanded to work through the tradeoffs, the compromises and the achievement of consensus is incredible. Sometimes it appears as if the invitation to participate in a joint action is indeed an invitation to failure. This is an overstatement, but the point should be clear. A major reason for this is that if an agency thinks it knows what to do and can pull it off, it will do it. Whether or not it makes any sense to the community is another question. When agencies jointly tackle a big and important problem because they know they can't do it alone, they find themselves unprepared or poorly prepared to invest the effort and the time that the planning and action require.

It is essential to clarify the choices open to us in basic organizational strategy before considering the new or different ways of working. An analysis of the choices suggested three basic approaches.

These are:

> Single organization or unitary action by an organization to achieve its own goals. This is the old pattern; it is effective within limits. We know it well.
>
> Federative organizations--cooperative action through membership in a federation to achieve inclusive goals with member organizations free to set their own goals. This, too, is an old pattern but one with more promise than has yet been realized.
>
> The formation of coalitions--informal cooperative arrangements among organizations to set inclusive goals, but with individual organizations being free to set their own specific goals autonomously. A coalition, then, is an informal alliance, association or combination of persons, groups, organizations or constituencies drawn together for a specific purpose. Typically, coalitions have emerged in time of crisis and last for the duration of the crisis or until the special problems for which they were set up have been met or the situation has changed.

At this point in time an agency is out of it, or on the way out, unless its basic strategy in the community combines all three approaches. Relatively greater emphasis now, more than at any time in the past, needs to be placed on federation membership, on initiating coalitions around problems in cooperation with the people to be served, and in joining such coalitions initiated by others. The coalition with its informality and specificity is a very much underused tool or organizational form.

Emphasis on federation membership and coalitions should not be interpreted as, nor should it lead to, the neglect of the internal structure or the capability for unitary action on the part of an agency. An agency must be strong internally if it is to have anything to contribute to the community. It is suggested that an organization, to meet the problems it is supposed to help solve and to take a significant role in the community, must be strong in its own right, take an active role in federation, and seize the initiative in helping form coalitions.

The interaction among organizations at the community and the national levels is not predetermined. It emerges out of their relationships with each other in the community. The uncertainty, the lack of clarity, and the problems in the community can be reduced by organizations relating to each other in more deliberate ways to attain limited specific objectives or other objectives important enough to them to alter strongly entrenched practices.

Levels of Cooperation

Within the context of these organizational alternatives we can examine specific means, specific activities, specific kinds of interaction, cooperation or collaboration. Counting, measuring, and scaling these activities provide a basis for determining the level of cooperation among organizations. Some recent research has centered attention on this question. Aiken and Hage (1968) approached level and intensity of interaction among agencies, somewhat as practitioners have done by counting the number of joint programs. In 1969 Finley at Cornell identified 17 activities with which the level or intensity of cooperation could be measured, and with which he could distinguish low, middle level, or high level cooperation. He found the items to be scalable, using Gutman scaling techniques, which simply means that if you reached item 10 on the scale of his 17 items you would also have done items 1-9.

Others following Finley, notably Klonglan and his associates (1972) found also that activities could be categorized as indicating low, medium, and high levels of collaboration. The list below draws on and summarizes both research and experience.

Low Levels of Collaboration

1. Awareness of the existence of other organization(s) in your field.
2. Acquaintance with director(s), staff, counterparts in other organizations.
3. Acquaintance with programs and activities of organizations in the same/similar field of activity.
4. Unplanned, unscheduled communication between/among staffs, board members.
5. Unplanned, unscheduled personal interaction.
6. Limited exchange of program information as to needs, trends, emphases, projections.

7. Membership on interagency councils with general planning, coordination and evaluation responsibilities.

Middle Level of Collaboration

8. Planned, specific provisions for sharing of information on policy changes, programs, impact of programs.
9. Deliberate, planned exchange and interaction among staffs.
10. Exchange of personnel, resources and materials.
11. Planned participation on projects initiated by other organizations; coalitions initiated by other organizations; invitation/expectation that other organization(s) will participate in coalitions you initiate.

High Level of Cooperation

12. Joint planning/joint initiation of projects/coalitions.
13. Joint development of budgets/use of funds.
14. Planned overlapping of boards, joint setting of policies.
15. Planned, continuing collaboration supported by jointly determined policies and agreements.

It should be clear that this list is a summary drawn from experience and research. In its present form it has not been tested. For our purposes, however, it provides a perspective on the range of collaboration from low level to high level, and should help us to formulate specific guidelines for achieving the level of collaboration that is seen to be appropriate in working with other organizations.

This is a good time for the groups to begin their work. The group leaders and recorders following the analysis of the specific situations will help you formulate your suggestions for increasing collaboration. Suggestions are to be put on newsprint so that they will be available for the general discussion.

This paper is not completed. Material produced by the workshop will be added with appropriate comments.

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The best approach in many situations is to avoid a vote until a consensus has emerged.

It is only one short step from this discussion of self-defeating behavior to the subject of "planning models," for in the selection of the planning model they will use many congregations condemn themselves to another form of self-defeating behavior and thus thwart what otherwise could be creative and productive efforts to plan for ministry.

II Planning Models

"It should be perfectly obvious to everyone that the number one priority here should be youth and young married couples," declared a longtime leader at Ebenezer Church. "The future of the church is with the young people! Jim and I went over the membership roll last night in preparation for this meeting, and out of our 243 resident members, 209 are at least forty years old. Nearly half of those are past fifty-five! We do not have anyone in a leadership position under forty. We have only 14 members in the twenty to thirty age group, and 9 of them are really inactive. I don't see how anyone can look at those figures and come out with any other conclusion. We need to put more emphasis on our ministry to youth!"

"You're right, Martha," agreed another older leader. "We do a pretty good job here at Ebenezer for couples in their fifties and sixties, but there is no future for our church in that age group. There's no question but that reaching out to young couples should be our top priority."

"I couldn't agree with you both more," added a man who was generally recognized to be the most influential leader at Ebenezer Church. "I know it's easy to list a lot of other problems we have here. The Sunday school is down to a handful of kids, we're hurting financially, we need more parking, and we're short of leaders; but those are really symptoms of a more basic problem. If two dozen young

CREATIVE CHURCH ADMINISTRATION

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adults joined the congregation next Sunday, all of these other problems would soon disappear!"

This approach to planning, priority-setting, and decision-making is not unusual. It is one of the most widely used "planning models" to be found in the churches. For the purposes of this discussion it can be identified as "planning from weakness." Or, to be more specific, this planning model appears to be based on the assumption that the best approach to planning is to identify that area of ministry in which our church is least effective or that function of the church in which we as a congregation are weakest and make it the number one priority. This means concentrating on that specialized area of ministry in which the resources are the fewest, past experiences will be least effective, and local skills are the scarcest. There may be other approaches which have a greater probability of failure than this planning-from-weakness model, but it is very difficult to name more than two or three. There may be other techniques which are more likely to undermine the morale of a congregation, but they are very rare. There may be other administrative processes which are more likely to be nonproductive, but they too are fortunately very rare.

Planning from Strength

A far better planning model for use a Ebenezer Church would be one which can be identified as "planning from strength" or the "potentialities model."

Recently the leaders in a congregation very similar to Ebenezer Church began asking themselves, "Where do we go from here?" As they sought to respond to this question they first concluded that they must do so within the context of the call to be faithful and obedient, rather than from a concern to perpetuate the institution. Next they asked two questions. First, what are the needs of people to which we can address ourselves as servants of Jesus Christ? Second, what are the special gifts, resources, strengths, talents, and assets we are blessed with that suggest a direction? As they reflected on the eighty years of the congregation's life, they began to realize that in the three decades since the end of World War II they had changed from a two-generation "family church" to a congregation of one-generation households, most which had already seen the youngest child leave home. They had become a congregation in which 83 of the 191 names on the mailing list represented one-person households. Instead of planning from weakness in an attempt to re-create yesterday, they saw themselves with a meeting place in a neighborhood with an increasing proportion of older residents. Many of these individuals, a large number of whom were widowed, had no active affiliation with any worshiping congregation. As they studied this picture the leaders saw the needs and the hurts of scores of lonely older persons. They also saw that this coincided with the greatest strength of their own congregation—the ability to minister to older persons, to be a family for those who had no family, to be a support group for the bereaved, and to bring the gospel of Good News to those who felt there no longer was any good news.

Within the space of fourteen months this congregation created a Bible study–prayer group–quilting fellowship of eleven older women, most of them widowed, who met all day every Tuesday and Thursday. Another group of older persons came together every Friday morning for Bible study, fellowship, and lunch and spent the afternoon calling on residents of four nearby nursing homes. A third group was formed around the idea of a "Fisherman's Club." Following a carry-in supper and a thirty-five-minute Bible study period they went out by twos in a visitation-evangelism program based on the assumption that a minimum of seven calls was necessary on any unchurched person before they could tell whether or not that individual might be interested in uniting with their congregation. A fourth group was formed to call regularly on the growing number of shut-ins in the congregation. A fifth group met every Tuesday evening for intercessory prayer. A sixth group was composed of nine men, four of them widowed, who met at the church every other Saturday to spend the day going out into the neighborhood to put up storm windows, repair front steps, fix leaky faucets, and perform a hundred other "handyman" chores for residents who could not do these things for themselves and did not feel they could afford to hire someone to do it. Every noon two or three of the wives of men in this group served a hearty lunch at the church for the corps of "neighborhood volunteers."

Twenty-six months after the first meeting of the planning committee which led to the development of the groups a statistical summary revealed that seventy-eight persons—fifty-five of them widowed, divorced, separated, or never married—were involved regularly in the life of these six groups. All but three of the seventy-eight had passed their fifty-fifth birthday, and thirty-seven of the seventy-eight were new members of the congregation. Another 119 persons, again all but three age fifty-five or over, had united with the congregation as a result of the intensive visitation-evangelism program.

When this statistical summary was being discussed by the leaders of another, similar congregation, someone asked, "But what's the future of a congregation which specializes in a ministry to older persons?"

One response was "That's an irrelevant question; the point is, are they being faithful and obedient in responding to what the Lord is calling them to do and to be?"

A more pragmatic-minded person responded, "They have a great future! They're specializing in a ministry to the most neglected and the second-fastest-growing age group in the total population."

Planning by Cliché

A third planning model in wide use across the North American continent today can be identified simply as "planning by cliché." All too often simplistic clichés, which later turn out to be fallacies, are offered as the solution to the problems facing the church.

Unquestionably the most common of these clichés is "Ours is a friendly church, and that's our main attraction for people."

While it is true that in most congregations many of the recent new members commend the friendliness of the congregation, this is counting only some of the ballots. Rare is the church which counts the number of persons who visited once or twice and never came back. Though friendliness is a wonderful attribute, it is not a substitute in the long run for opportunities for personal and spiritual growth nor for excellence in program, especially in preaching and music. Likewise the number of different opportunities for people to be actively involved in ministry is far more significant than the number of "friendly" people. Every congregation has lots of "friendly" people in it. Every open, friendly, extroverted, and gregarious person finds friendly people wherever he goes. How "friendly" is the friendly church to the lonely, the alienated, the shy, the introverted, and the overburdened? That's another question!

While this dependence on "friendliness" represents the most extreme example of planning by cliché, it does not stand alone. There are at least five other examples of this planning model which deserve review here.

"If only we can reach the youth and keep them, that'll be our church of tomorrow."

Many churches launch a youth ministry in order to strengthen "our church tomorrow." This pattern has four built-in areas of self-deception. First, that is a very poor motive for developing a ministry to youth. Second, only rarely in a vigorous and growing *urban* congregation will more than 10 or 15 percent of the high school youth of 1956 be members in 1976. They move away or join another church. Third, almost invariably the urban congregation in which more than 30 percent of today's adult leaders are people who were reared in that congregation is a church in trouble. Usually the source of the problem is that the congregation has been unable to reach new people and assimilate them into leadership positions, and thus it has been forced to depend heavily for leadership on persons who are children or spouses of members. Fourth, all too frequently this cliché can be translated into operational English as "Let's place a top priority on a ministry to youth, as the youth will grow up to share our values and be like us." The problem here is the tremendous shortage of high school youth in the 1970's who want to grow up to be "like us"!

The apartment boom of the past two decades has produced a third cliché for this list: "When the apartment buildings proposed for this area are constructed, there will be hundreds of people living within walking distance of our church; and many will come here and become members of this congregation."

Though this is not heard as often as it was a decade ago, before the failure of most congregations to reach the lonely people in apartments became so widely publicized, it is still a frequently encountered cliché. The general rule on this subject is that the congregations which are reaching an increasing number of people will reach apartment dwellers, and the churches which were not reaching many new people before the apartments were constructed will not reach the new apartment residents. Apartment dwellers, like other adults, tend to participate in the life of those congregations where they have friends and/or relatives among the members. Since most residents of new apartment structures have neither friends nor relatives in the congregations which meet in nearby buildings, one of two things happens. Either the apartment dwellers stay away from the nearby congregations, or members of these congregations seek out the apartment residents and take the initiative in building friendship ties.

A fourth cliché that is encountered frequently can be summarized in this statement: "If we could just unite these two or three churches here, we could create one larger congregation which could do more in ministry."

This cliché can be heard most frequently in those fifteen hundred counties which have experienced a decline in population since 1950 and in many parts of the larger central cities. In both cases experience suggests that the arithmetic comes out two plus two equals three (and often two) or three plus three plus three equals four or five. Mergers usually produce a decrease in the number of people in contact with that place where the Word is preached and the sacraments are duly administered. The merger of a large congregation and a small one tends to produce a situation which can be described more realistically as absorption rather than union.

Closely related is a fifth cliché which is often expressed in these words: "If we're ever going to reach more people, we have to move to a new location." This statement is heard most frequently in hundreds of central-city congregations with a declining membership figure.

While many relocations have produced larger and stronger congregations, especially those that were carried out before 1965, this does not automatically happen in every case. In a majority of relocations studied that were carried out during the past ten years, it appears that the two critical variables were (1) the larger the membership of the relocating congregation, the more likely it was that the church was unable to reach residents of the community in which the new meeting place was constructed, and (2) the relocated congregations which tended to grow in membership at a new location were the congregations which were growing in size before relocation.

In general, the congregations most likely to grow in membership following relocation are those which before relocation is proposed have developed the capability of reaching and assimilating unchurched persons, rather than those which relocate in order to perpetuate an institutional name and a congregation of people.

The last in this set of examples of planning by cliché is developed more adequately in chapter 10, but it should be mentioned here because it is heard so frequently.

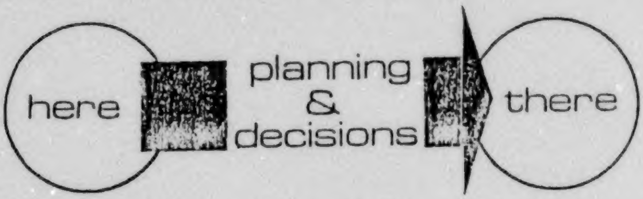
"If we can bring in programs and ministries so the building is used every day of the week, that will attract people, and our membership will increase."

Occasionally this does happen. New members are attracted by what the church is doing in ministry. Rarely, however, do many of the people toward whom the program is directed (such as the parents of children in a day care center or senior citizens) join the congregation housing the program. A far more typical pattern is that the congregation redefines its purpose as acting in a landlord role and the membership continues to decline in numbers.

The new members who do join those congregations with a heavily used building seven days a week tend overwhelmingly to be attracted, not by the programs themselves, but by an activist style of ministry, by the servant role definition of purpose (which is far different from the landlord role), and by the opportunity to serve (rather than to be served).

Planning for Tomorrow

A fourth model which is useful in some situations and which parallels the planning-from-strength model can be described very simply as "getting from here to there." This model focuses on three questions: What, in our understanding, is God calling this congregation to be and to do five (or six or four) years from today? Where are we now in relationship to where we should be five years hence? How do we go about getting from here to there? This is a very strongly goal-oriented model and resembles the concept of management by objective. It requires the people to dream, to envision the future, and to focus on the potentialities. This helps define "where we should be five years from now." Second, it requires the people to identify contemporary reality and to recognize both the assets and the liabilities of today. Third, the process of getting from "here" to "there" requires planning, policy formulation, decision-making, decision implementation, and evaluation. In very simple terms this process can be described by this diagram:



Nonplanning

The list of planning models that might be used by a congregation is very long, and it is impossible to describe them all here. The list includes the system developed in the United Presbyterian Church as "Planning-Budgeting-Evaluation," the use of the church budget as the beginning point for analysis, reflection, and planning since it is usually the place where influential planning has been happening.[1]

There is no one "best" model. Which is the best model to use will depend very heavily on local conditions at the time that a serious planning effort is undertaken. Among the least helpful are planning from weakness, planning by cliché, planning in response to a crisis, planning for efficiency and economy (rather than for ministry and quality), scapegoating, planning for yesterday, and "studying the community." Among the generally useful planning and decision-making models are management by objective, planning from strength, planning for tomorrow, cost-benefit

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[1] For an elaboration of this model see Lyle E. Schaller, *Parish Planning* (Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1971), pp. 36-64. For other very helpful approaches to congregational planning models see James P. Anderson, *To Come Alive!* (Philadelphia: Pilgrim Press, 1970); Marvin T. Judy, *The Parish Development Process* (Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1973), and Lyle E. Schaller, *The Decision-Makers* (Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1974).

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(allocative), innovative, from-purpose-to-program-to-performance-to-evaluation, planning-budgeting-evaluation, from old role to new role to new goals,[2] policy-planning, and the "here-to-there" model described earlier.

Regardless of which model is used, however, there is one concept which should be kept in mind and which can be integrated into most other models. Identified by its critics as "nonplanning," it can be described by contrasting two approaches. While the first is a caricature, it is not as much of an exaggeration as it may first appear. Back in the late 1940s and early 1950s, if one judges by actions rather than by the rhetoric, much planning was apparently based on the assumption "Never again will we have the wisdom, the foresight, and the talents of so many gifted people assembled in one place as we have here today. Therefore it is our responsibility to make all the decisions now on all questions which may arise during the next quarter-century because those poor folks ten or twenty years from now may not have the benefit of our wisdom."

At the other extreme is a view represented by the statement "We do not know the needs of the people who will be here ten or twenty years hence, so there is no point in our trying to plan for tomorrow."

Between these two extremes is a view which is reflected in this statement: "We do not know the needs, the values, and the wishes of the people who will follow us. We do know, however, that they will probably want to do things differently than we do now. Therefore let us plan in such a way that we leave the optimum range of choices open to those leaders who will follow us here so they can make use of what we do but also have the flexibility necessary to change and to adapt to the needs of their day." The Akron plan of church construction which flourished in the 1870–1925 era is one example of the first approach. The flexible and multiple-use worship facilities being built in the 1970s represent this intentional "nonplanning" model.

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[2] For an elaboration of this concept see Lyle E. Schaller, *Hey, That's Our Church!* (Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1975), pp 160-77.

While the shape of the administrative structure and the intentional selection of a relevant planning model are influential in creative church administration, most leaders, sooner or later, will raise the question "But how do we motivate people?" That is a related question, and to some extent it is influenced by organizational forms and the choice of planning models. This question on motivation deserves a separate chapter, however, since it is an essential element of creative church administration.

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Prepared by
Dr. Joseph Luther
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February 1978

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COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

Public Law 87-749   7 USC 341-349

Smith-Lever Act, as amended

PURPOSE

Grants are made to State Extension Services of designated land grant institutions of higher education to help finance cooperative education and information programs in agriculture, home economics, and community development, and to encourage the application of new procedures and techniques in these fields. Federal funds are allotted to State Extension Services primarily on the basis of the State's rural and farm population.

Major program areas include:

- agricultural production and marketing - educational and technical assistance, including personal consultation, is provided to help farmers:
  - learn about new technological developments
  - learn how to apply research findings and agricultural technology to improve efficiency and quality of agricultural production
  - study and analyze crop reports, market news, and other information to develop the most economical production and marketing plans
  - study their farm business, and develop and implement plans for improvement of their farming program and living standards
  - learn about and use relevant U.S. Department of Agriculture and other Federal agency programs
- community improvement and resource development - programs for helping people understand:
  - efficient methods of planning and providing community services
  - competitive uses of land and the relationship to community growth
  - solutions to problems in community areas within metropolitan areas (rural-urban fringe and rural slums)
  - joint concerns and responsibilities of rural and urban areas
  - methods of improving conditions and available services provided by health, education, recreation, religious, and other governmental and private institutions
- conservation, development, and use of natural resources - programs for effective resource management and use which develop an appreciation of both the economic and recreational values of natural resources and their inherent values
- economic development - programs for developing new business and industry or expanding existing ones to increase income and employment
- home economics education and consumer services - programs emphasizing nutrition and family health, consumer education, management, family economics, child development, human relations, and housing
- 4-H and youth development - informal out-of-school educational assistance and leadership development to youth through work projects, demonstrations, community service activities, leadership responsibilities, achievement programs, and career exploration projects

Funds may be used for:

- salaries and office expenses
- travel expenses
- demonstration materials and equipment

Funds may not be used for:

- purchase, erection, preservation, or repair of any buildings, or purchase or rental of land
- college course teaching or lectures in college

WHAT A PARTICIPANT DOES

County Extension Office

- Ascertains probable eligibility. Governing officials of the county, groups specified by State law, or other county bodies which are qualified to deal officially with the land grant college are eligible.
- Obtains information and assistance from the State Extension Service of the State land grant college *(see your STATE office, Tab Q)*.
- Consults with local community groups to identify needs, problems, and opportunities in the areas of agricultural production and marketing, community and resource development, home economics and consumer education, and youth development.
- Plans out-of-school educational programs, in cooperation with local groups and the land grant college, to interpret, demonstrate, and encourage the application of new techniques and procedures to be used in developing community, regional, and industry-wide plans for total community acceleration *(see Purpose for major program areas)*. Programs may consist of:
  - sponsoring informational and instructional meetings and offering demonstrations
  - distributing educational publications

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    - disseminating information through television, radio, and newspapers
    - providing advice and assistance
- Receives from the State Extension Service:
    - supervision
    - technical assistance, when necessary
    - State and Federal funds
- Also receives support from respective land grant colleges and universities through State-based technical and administrative extension workers, State experiment stations and resident teaching staffs, and the technical information and resources of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

Matching Requirement

The source and amount of county funds vary from State to State.

State Extension Service—Land Grant College or University

- Receives funds appropriated by Congress and the State legislature.
- Organizes and maintains an administrative division for the management of extension work.
- Receives assistance from Federal extension specialists in planning, developing, and coordinating national, regional, and State extension programs.
- Plans and conducts educational and extension work in the fields of agriculture, home economics, and related subjects.
- Provides:
    - technical and administrative assistance, when necessary, to County Extension Offices
    - services of professionally trained staff specialists in agriculture, home economics, youth work, and community development
- Submits annual report of extension operations, including a statement of receipts and expenditures from all sources for extension activities, to the State Governor and a copy of the report to the Federal Extension Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington D.C. 20250.
- Submits annual work plans for the use of Federal funds in support of extension work for approval by the U.S. Department of Agriculture *(see FEDERAL FUNDS AND DEADLINES, Tab A)*.

Matching Requirement

States are generally required to provide an equal amount of non-Federal funds to match Federal funds allotted.

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- Coordinates Cooperative Extension Service program.
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Federal Extension Service
U.S. Department of Agriculture
Washington D.C. 20250

FOR:

- Advice and technical assistance

RELATED FEDERAL PROGRAMS

Page	Program
D107	Community service and continuing education programs
D91	Land grant colleges - campus instruction

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TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES FOR FIELD USE

List of Tools and Techniques for Field Uses

An Approach to a Formal Communications Network
Activities Needed For Group Achievement
Alternative Ways of Inviting Nominees To Serve on the Community Group
Alternative Ways to Gather Information About the Community
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Opinion Leader Survey - Sample
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The Formation and Use of Task Force Teams
The Job of the Chairperson
The Kiva
The Program Associates Role in Creating a Continuous Process of Information Sharing in A Community
The Work of the Community Group
Things to Consider When Tabulating Data
Various Methods of Doing a Community Survey
What an Effective Group Discussion Requires
What Are the Different Ways of Gathering Information
Worksheet for Building a School-Community Group Sample
Worksheet for Determining Criteria for An Effective Solution

AN APPROACH TO A FORMAL COMMUNICATIONS NETWORK

Communications through formal channels are often haphazard and left to chance. The following model of things to be considered before using the formal communication channels was developed by Richard I. Miller at the University of Kentucky and has been adapted for use with the Community Development Model.

I. Priorities

A. What information should be sent? Is this decision one of free choice or is it mandated?

B. Who should send it?

II. Objectives

A. What are the intended results of the communication?

1. In terms of your program?
2. In terms of the selected audience?

B. Are these objectives measurable?

III. Strategy

A. What process will be developed for achieving stated objectives?

1. What is the nature of the message?

    a. general community information
    b. technical knowledge
    c. special reports
    d. ideas

2. Who is the sender?

    a. local officials
    b. governing board/group
    c. Community Group
    d. task force team

3. What is the best timing?

    a. When should the message be sent?
    b. What factors should determine this?

4. What medium should be used?

    a. memorandum
    b. newspaper
    c. radio
    d. television
    e. special meetings
    f. informal communications network, etc.

B. How much time will be required?

C. How much money will be required?

D. What personnel will be required?

E. What degree of awareness should be sought for each selected audience?

IV. Evaluation

A. Has the communication achieved the desired objectives?

B. Some possible methods of evaluating.

1. Survey (questionnaire)
2. Interviews
3. Unsolicited feedback

    a. letters
    b. phone calls
    c. informal comments

4. Unobtrusive measures

    a. better support of community programs
    b. better care of city/county equipment and facilities

ACTIVITIES NEEDED FOR GROUP ACHIEVEMENT

I. Activities that maintain group cohesiveness and morale, such as:

  A. Getting people acquainted through introductions and informal gatherings

  B. Meeting physical needs in terms of temperature, breaks, food, comfort

  C. Meeting emotional needs by letting people tell you their story, complimenting a person, expressing sympathy

  D. Gatekeeping--in other words, helping bring everyone into the discussion

  E. Supporting people by listening attentively, showing interest, and encouraging them to give more details about their ideas

  F. Compromising, or being willing to give up one's own ideas when group objectives require it

  G. Harmonizing--helping people reach agreement or understanding and reducing areas of conflict

  H. Reminding the group of standards it has set, and the rights of individuals

  I. Reducing emotional tension by introducing humor or suggesting a break

II. Activities that help the group attend to its task

  A. Stating the problem clearly, either by pointing out problems that need attention or getting others to state problems

  B. Recognizing the need for information and helping people secure it

  C. Recognizing the need for sharing opinions or feelings

  D. Offering proposals for solving problems

  E. Evaluating suggestions and testing their practicality

  F. Summarizing group progress, decisions, or disagreements

  G. Making procedural suggestions--for example, asking the group to consider forming subcommittees, using buzz groups, trying a role play, listing suggestions on the board, or assigning priorities to agenda items

  H. Calling attention to the amount of time remaining and the agenda still to be covered

  I. Recording suggestions and decisions

ALTERNATE WAYS OF INVITING NOMINEES TO SERVE ON THE COMMUNITY GROUP

Note: These procedures assume that community mix criteria have been established and nominees for each criteria have already been made.

1. Partners or temporary group members (a) divide up the list of first nominees for each position (dividing by familiarity with persons when possible), (b) talk to them in person; and then (c) send a letter reiterating purpose, thanking for acceptance, and designating first meeting date and place.
2. A letter from the Partners and/or the Temporary Group is sent requesting nominees to serve; then, after confirmation is received, a second letter is sent specifying the time and place of the first meeting.
3. The Partners, PA or temporary group member telephone each individual and ask him or her to serve; then a letter is sent confirming the agreement and specifying the time and place of the first meeting.
4. All nominees are invited to one meeting. The process and the CG are described and information sheets passed out before people decide to accept the nomination.
5. Nominees are invited to a meeting, a mini-needs assessment is conducted, ways to conduct a needs assessment are looked at, and Task Force Teams to do needs assessment tasks are organized. Then a definite commitment from nominated opinion leaders is asked for.

The following items need to be included in phone, personal, or letter contacts:

1. People are being requested to serve on a Community Group for community improvement.
2. The candidate has been nominated by his or her peers.
3. Group members will be working with people nominated from walks of life other than their own.
4. Training will be provided to help the group with problem definition, problem solving, decision making, and communication.
5. Acceptance does not imply a forever responsibility: members can rotate in and out as desired.

ALTERNATE WAYS TO GATHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE COMMUNITY

Knowledge of the target community is necessary to the success of the Community Developer, and is an essential ingredient for entry. Much of the information about a community can be gathered outside the community, and will contribute to the understanding of the predominant economic, political, cultural, and physical aspects of the community. Notice paid to linkages and relationships to society outside the community will assist in understanding the strengths and constraints of the local situation. Construction of a community profile prior to entry will provide a useful guideline.

Data unobtrusively gathered from existing records will provide the Community Developer with a basic understanding of the community situation: if more information is desired or agreed upon, quiet use of simple instruments will provide information for construction of a community profile with as little disturbance to the local situation as possible.

Informal conversation with people in a community will also reveal who the "power" people are. Questions like: Who are the people that get things done in this community? Who must be "behind" a project to make it go? Who are the people in your community that other people listen to and follow? After several such contacts have been made, the names of certain individuals will be repeated, helping you to identify community leadership.

ATTITUDE CHECK LIST FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPERS

In any discussion of involvement in community decision making, the issue of the skill of the Community Developer arises. There is no one set of skills which are applicable to every situation. Since, however, community involvement is effective when many kinds of people work well together in a conscious effort to share tasks and skills, the attitude of the Community Developer is as critical as his or her skills. Indeed, a person's attitude may define his/her skill as an encourager of interaction between community people. The following checklist may be helpful in discussing or assessing your own "encourager" skills.

As a person, do you:

_____ Welcome new experiences and keep an open mind about community problems and alternatives for their solution?
_____ Assess your own motivations, capacities and limitations?
_____ Keep informed of educational and social issues of the community?
_____ Work for minority group involvement in community programs and efforts?
_____ Encourage people to believe that they can do something for themselves?
_____ Realize that doing things for people does not develop their initiative or strength?
_____ Develop your program in a way to allow for its continuance after your exit?

In working with others, do you:

_____ Acknowledge that people have the power within themselves to develop programs of action for their own betterment?
_____ Accept minimal formal education does not necessarily denote inability to think or act?
_____ Understand that people will cooperate in carry out plans only to the extent that they have a part in making them?
_____ Consider that people do for themselves things that are meaningful to them?
_____ Look for new ideas and new techniques for solving familiar problems?
_____ Include new leadership from youth, minority groups or other untapped sources?
_____ Establish and maintain constructive relationships with government officials and other members of the power structure in the community?
_____ Seek the opinions of others, including those whose views differ from yours?
_____ Acknowledge the contributions and strengths of others?
_____ Allow time for winning confidence and acceptance by others?

In carrying out action, do you:

_____ Allow for flexibility and experimentation in your plans?
_____ Evaluate where you are and allow for alternative strategies?
_____ Determine realistically what resources are needed and what are available?
_____ Consider people more important than programs?
_____ See the development of people as a basic object of your program?
_____ Have the patience to wait perhaps months or years for visible results?
_____ See success in a program as a springboard for future action?
_____ Learn from setbacks or failures for your future efforts?
_____ Recognize that community involvement produces more than tangible results?

Adapted from "Attitude/Skills Checklist for Potential Change Agents", by Dr. Michale G. Giammatteo.

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BECOMING A COMMUNITY GROUP MEMBER

You have been asked to serve on a community group, or CG for short. These two pages include some information about what type of group this will be and what will be expected of you as a member.

How Is the Group Formed?

This group will have approximately 15 to 30 members. Many are representatives from the community who have been carefully selected to make sure all segments of the community are represented. The entire group has been approved by Mayor/ City Council/County Commissioner or other governing body. The fact that you were asked to serve means you have been selected by other citizens in your community and by your City Council/Mayor/County Commissioner. The entire body represents a cross section of the community; therefore, each person is important if the group is to get view from all segments of the community.

What Will the Group Do?

The CG is an independent group which will address community needs, make recommendations to the City Council/County Commissioners and take action to make improvements. The fact that you have been approved by them shows their interest in knowing what citizens expect from their community. The major undertaking of this group will be to work through a problem-solving cycle called the Partnership for Rural Improvement Process.in order to:

1. determine what the needs of the community are and what the priorities should be
2. seek out information about solutions to the needs identified
3. design a plan to put selected improvement programs into effect
4. assist in putting that plan into operation
5. assist in evaluating the results and the way in which work was conducted

How Long and How Often Will This Group Meet?

The total time for such a set of tasks maybe expected to range from 9 to 22 months, depending upon the pace the group chooses. The number of meetings you will need to attend will depend on the pace set by the group. The entire group may not neet to work on each item. Task forces may be selected or volunteer to consider certain items or to meet with consultants. However, each major decision will be considered by the entire CG before it is recommended to the Council or Board of Commissioners.

Who Operates or Controls the Group?

As an independent group, the CG will choose its own leaders, move at its own pace, and decide on its own issues. People from PRI will work with the group to help get things started and will remain available to consult with group leaders, task forces, and individuals. These people will not serve on the group. Their primary job is to introduce the process and aid as the group moves through it.

What Support Is There for This Group?

The support behind this group is from the Partnership for Rural Improvement (PRI). This group is made up of local representatives from educational institutions and governmental agencies who form the local Partners Group. Whenever possible, representatives from these groups together with a Program Associate employed by PRI will assist as needed and will lend its staff and expertise when asked to do so by the Community Group. Often, agency staff can point the way to consultants or information needed by the group.

The philosophy behind these efforts is that a community should be allowed to study itself and its needs without interference from outside agencies or experts, but that these agencies and experts should be ready to lend support whenever they are needed. As such a process is developed, the community builds the skills and capabilities to deal with its needs without becoming dependent on outside agencies. At the same time, however, it is building the skill to utilize the assistance available from such agencies. This pattern results in programs and changes being under the control of the local community.

If you have concerns or questions about getting involved with such a group, feel free to contact a member of your local Partners Group.

BRAINSTORMING WITH A GROUP

Brainstorming is a handy method for helping a group learn how to tap its own resources in a short period of time. A few basic ground rules help to keep brainstorming sessions productive and rewarding.

- Present the topic clearly. Write it on a blackboard, flip-chart, or newsprint so that everyone can read it.
- Write down all suggestions. One idea promotes others.
- Do not screen or sort suggestions.
- If possible, write down the exact words of the contributor. However, if the statement is too long, write down a shorter version of it which the contributor agrees is accurate.
- Move rapidly from one item to the next.
- Discussion must be for the purpose of clarifying the meaning rather than the worth of an idea.
- Encourage spontaneous ideas as well as carefully considered ones.
- Seek ideas from the whole group rather than from a few vocal individuals.
- Have a spotter to help solicit ideas and one or more persons to help record them.
- Set a time limit or a maximum number of items before you begin. Five or ten minutes is usually enough time.
- Make sure group members understand that they will sort and evaluate the ideas after the brainstorming is completed.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE GROUP

1. Members do not ignore seriously intended contributions.

   People need to know the effect of their remarks if they are to improve the way they participate in the group. When others do not respond, the speaker cannot know whether:

   a. they did not understand the remark

   b. they understood it and agreed with it

   c. they understood it but disagreed with it

   d. they understood it but thought it was irrelevant

2. Members check to make sure they know what a speaker means before they agree or disagree with his or her contribution.

   Group members should ask "What is it?" before they ask "How do we feel about it?" Group members need to paraphrase, check perceptions, and summarize discussions to clarify their assumptions of what others are saying and feeling.

3. Each member speaks only for himself and lets others speak for themselves.

   Each member states reactions as his or her own and does not attribute them to others or give the impression of speaking for others. Each member reports his or her own reactions honestly, so the group can take them into account.

4. All contributions are viewed as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decides.

   A member who makes a suggestion does not have to defend it. Instead, all accept responsibility for evaluating it as the joint property of the group.

5. All members participate but in different and complementary ways.

   While some members work primarily on tasks, others work on improving interpersonal relations. While some members are providing information, others are making sure it is understood and organized, or identifying points of agreement or disagreement. However, each member does not always participate in the same way. Depending on his or her interest in the task, and on the behavior of the other group members, a member fulfills whatever function is appropriate and necessary.

6. Whenever the group senses it is having trouble getting work done, it tries to find the reason.

   Some symptoms of difficulty are excessive hair-splitting, repeating points over and over, failing to consider suggestions, holding private conversations, letting two or three people dominate the discussion, taking sides and refusing to compromise, attacking ideas before they are completely expressed, and participating apathetically. When such symptoms occur, the group needs to shift from working on the task to discussing its own interpersonal processes.

7. The group makes decisions openly rather than by default.

When a group faces an issue, its members must make a decision. They may agree openly to take action or to take no action. On the other hand, they may decide by default to take no action. Deciding by default has the same impact as openly agreeing not to act, but decisions by default are regarded by group members as failures and create tensions among them. A group grows more by openly agreeing not to act than by not acting because they could not agree.

In a productive group, people view each decision as a trial which can be carried out, evaluated, and revised in light of experience. They know that each decision need not be everything-or-nothing and need not last forever. When this kind of group makes a decision which it does not carry out, its members recognize that they really decided not to act. The group openly discusses why the apparent and real decision were not the same. They try to learn why some members agreed with the decision, although they felt no personal commitment to carry it out.

An effective group makes decisions in different ways depending on the kind of issue and the importance of the outcome. The group may vote, delegate the decision to a special subgroup, flip a coin, or require complete consensus. The crucial factor is that the group agree on the way to make each decision.

8. The group brings conflict into the open and deals with it.

The members recognize that conflict is inevitable and that they can decide whether to discuss it openly or disguise it.

9. The group looks upon behavior which hinders its work as happening because the group allows, or even wants, it; not just as the result of having a "problem member."

A person who continually introduces irrelevancies can change the topic only if other members follow that person's lead. Instead of labeling the person as the problem, the group considers it a group problem. They determine why they all let it happen. Perhaps the other members welcome these digressions as a way of avoiding the open conflict which would occur if they stayed on the topic.

Likewise, the person who talks too much, jokes too much, continually attacks others, or never participates, is a problem shared by the total group. The group needs to discuss "our problem" openly to eliminate the disruption.

The group gives helpful information to individuals about the impact of their actions on the group. It does not, however, analyze, dissect, and work these people over.

COMBINED OPINION LEADER IDENTIFICATION AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT SURVEY

1. Consider tasks associated with Opinion Leader identification and needs assessment.
2. Assist group in developing work plan.
3. Aid group in gathering community goals and concerns from previous studies, newspapers, public meetings, etc.
4. Help group to use all collected information as the basis for determining the contents of the needs assessment survey.
5. Review with the TCG alternative methods (strengths and weaknesses) for collecting needs assessment information from the community.
6. Help group create the data collection instruments which will be needed to conduct the survey using the methods they have selected.
7. Provide any training needed for using these methods or instruments; e.g., interviewing skills.
8. Assist group in data collection procedures; e.g., organizing community for canvas, logging in data.
9. Provide training needed in editing, collating, tabulating and analyzing data.
10. Separate Opinion Leader data from the needs assessment data and begin tabulating these returns as first priority.
11. Help prepare Opinion Leader report for local board/group; e.g., take top 75 or 100 names, list them alphabetically as potential candidates for local CG.
12. Help arrange to have Opinion Leader report presented to local board/group after they have identified community mix criteria.
13. Aid board/group in getting a primary and alternative person appointed for each criteria of mix and assist them with ways of getting these nominees to serve. Also establish date for organizational meeting of the CG.
14. Continue working with the group to complete tabulation of needs assessment data and compile into a report.
15. Help group get needs assessment report duplicated in quantity.
16. Assist group in (a) making a presentation of needs assessment report to board/group, (b) mailing copies to new CG members, (c) distributing copies of report throughout community.
17. Work with CG in its first meeting to organize itself and begin procedures for establishing priority goals upon which they will concentrate their initial efforts.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPERS CHECK LIST

Successful community development develops from the informal contacts the Community Developer has in the community as well as from the particular skills and capabilities that are used with the C.G. In order to have information about what it is like to live in a town, to develop credibility and to establish a reputation as a familiar friend, the Community Developer does well to have as many informal contacts with the community as possible. The following questions are intended to help assess the extent of exposure to, and awareness of, the communities in which work is in progress.

		Yes	No
1.	Have you attended a variety of meetings in the community? (i.e. co-commissioner, city council, school board, etc.)	( )	( )
2.	Have you read a copy of a local newspaper?	( )	( )
	More than one?	( )	( )
3.	Have you shopped in a local store?	( )	( )
	More than one?	( )	( )
4.	Have you eaten in a local restaurant?	( )	( )
	More than one?	( )	( )
5.	Have you stayed overnight in the community?	( )	( )
	Have you stayed overnight in a private home?	( )	( )
6.	Have you talked with staff(s) of local establishments about what it is like to live in this town?	( )	( )
7.	Have you talked with several local people about the town's history and/or present conditions? And make-up (some groups are seldom talked about).	( )	( )
8.	Have you sought out a possible relative, acquaintance or friend in the community?	( )	( )
9.	Have you studied the local telephone book?	( )	( )
10.	Have you read any studies or comprehensive plans about the community?	( )	( )
11.	Do you know anything about the surrounding geography of the area?	( )	( )
	Locally famous landmarks?	( )	( )
12.	Do you know the local industries (if any)?	( )	( )
13.	Are you aware of any famous people from this town?	( )	( )
14.	Have you asked where people get medical, financial, social and business services?	( )	( )
15.	Have you asked about the local recreations?	( )	( )
	Have you engaged in any?	( )	( )
16.	Are you aware of the informal and formal power structure?	( )	( )
17.	Knowledge of the existing groups and organizations within the community and which ones seem to be most important?	( )	( )

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COMMUNITY MIX CRITERIA LIST

1. Students
2. Teachers
3. School Board
4. School Advisory Groups
5. Indians
6. Farmers
7. Businessmen (may need several categories)
8. Parents with Kids in School
9. Adults without Kids
10. Comfortable Income, Retired
11. Poverty, Low Income
12. Informal Groups (Girl Scouts, etc.)
13. Formal Groups (Kiwanis, Lions, DKG, C of C)
14. Teacher Aides
15. Industry
16. Balance Between Male and Female Representatives
17. Other

COMMUNITY OPINION LEADER OPTIONS

1. Meet with group designated by the local governing board or group (City Council, County Commissioners)
   a. Consider tasks associated with Opinion Leader identification
   b. Assist group in developing a work plan
2. Assist in developing a survey form for nominations from the community.
3. Aid the group in gaining needed approvals for use of the form.
4. Assist as needed in conducting Opinion Leader Survey; e.g., provide training for processes identified in work plan, for editing, and tabulation of data, etc.
5. Train for handling data, report preparation, and presentation of Opinion Leader report to the governing board or group.
6. Assist as needed in processing of data and report preparation.
7. Work with governing board/group to develop an approved list of community mix criteria to form a Community Group (CG) and obtain approval at regular governing board meeting.
8. Attend board/group meeting to hear Opinion Leader report from volunteer groups. Assist board in getting primary and alternate positions filled for each criteria of mix and discuss options for getting nominees to serve. Schedule CG organizational meeting date and help board/group plan for first meeting.
9. Attend first meeting of community group. Serve as consultant for group, offering ideas, procedures and methods useful in organizing for community improvement.
10. Provide information to the CG to assist them in developing a plan for effective meetings. Group skills training may be needed; i.e. listening skills, problem identification, goal setting, building informal communications, etc.
11. When the CG indicates a need for identifying local community problems, start by helping them develop plans for a needs assessment.
12. Help group review data collection alternatives.
13. Assist group to determine methods of developing items for a community survey.
14. Assist group examine options for data collecting methods and select ones to be used.
15. Assist in translation of community concerns and recent studies into survey items.
16. Assist group create data collection instrument(s).

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17. Provide training for organizing and conducting the survey.

18. Assist in data collection - logging in data, etc.

19. Provide training in editing, collating, tabulation and analysis of data, report preparation and presentation.

20. Assist in preparing report for local governing board/group.

21. Attend meeting where needs assessment report is presented by CG to support the group as needed.

22. See to it that a copy of preliminary needs assessment report is mailed to every CG member and made widely available to community members.

COMMUNITY SIZE AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT

The best method for doing a needs assessment varies with the size and type of the community.

In quite small communities--under 1,000 total population--a well-advertised community meeting produces a good turnout. A general explanation can be given to everyone and interviews and/or questionnaires can be used. People attending are checked off a master list, with followup calls by volunteers used to gather information from those who did not attend. The needs assessment can be completed in four or five days. However, tabulations may take longer, depending on the number of items on the instrument used. (Variations on this method have been successful with communities of 2,500 population.)

Another method appropriate to small communities is the existing informal communications networks. The SCG recruits additional workers and together they divide up the community and systematically canvas all the families living in the community. A high school math or social studies class might also follow this procedure as a learning experience.

In communities of approximately 2,500-10,000 population, it may be possible to hold meetings in the elementary school and get a fairly large number of people (mostly parents) to attend. Obviously, this survey needs to be supplemented by opinions from people not having students in school. A sampling procedure can help determine whether opinions from the two groups are similar. Telephone sampling may be one way of obtaining this information.

Needs assessment in a larger community requires more publicity, more volunteers, simpler procedures, more time and more expense.

In communities having more than one elementary school, a needs assessment survey for each elementary school attendance area is organized. This survey should provide a pattern which could be repeated throughout a district of any size and still yield useful data.

A small town or city with community pride is easier to survey than one where little or no sense of community pride exists.

Procedures already outlined may be successful in a well-identified, proud community. The community which has little cohesion requires other methods.

- Try to discover the major groups, organizations, clubs, and churches. Find representatives from each group and organize for each as you would for an elementary living area.

- Spend time identifying the criteria of mix and ask people to suggest 10-25 people for each category. Survey these by phone, questionnaire, and/or interview.

- Obtain a list of community organizations from the chamber of commerce or elsewhere. Write each organization a letter, asking that a representative be sent to a community meeting. At the meeting use a Goals/Barriers/Priority approach and publish the results in newspaper/radio with a request that people react to them. Both sets of data become information for the SCG to use in making their decision on what their priorities should be.

- Electric companies may allow use of their address files for a total community survey or for sampling purposes. In a few communities, they may even allow a short questionnaire to accompany monthly bills. This is a sensitive area and must be accompanied by mature judgment.

COMMUNITY SURVEY TASKS - A CHECK LIST

A. Strategy Consideration

1. Mailings to all households in area?
2. Mailings to sample? What is a good sample selection?
3. Interviews with each household
4. Interviews with sample
5. Pick up or mail back if mailings are used
6. Postal rates, post office numbers, good days to mail bulk material, delivery schedules, return rates need to be discussed with post office
7. What is acceptable response rate?
8. How will second coverage be made if it is necessary?

B. Resources Needed

1. Mileage
2. Postage
3. Printing facilities
4. Paper
5. Personnel to do each task
6. Maps
7. Storage and work space
8. Time - completion date in agreement with real constraints

C. Record Keeping

1. Area assignment for interviewing and/or pickup of mailers
2. System for keeping track of how much of an area has responded
3. System for keeping track of community response rates
4. Where and how will forms be accumulated as they are returned to protect confidentiality
5. How will tallies be made and who will make them to protect confidentiality?
6. How will final list be created and presented to local board/group?

D. Other related tasks:

1. Creation of questionnaire to cover issues of purpose of the questionnaire, use of the questionnaire, opinion leader identification, criteria for identification, community mix characteristics of respondents, validating statement by authorizing body, area identification of respondent, community identification of respondent.
2. If mailer is used, eye catcher for front to avoid instant throw-away
3. Contact with all area media so people know questionnaire is coming
4. Recruitment of persons to type, duplicate, fold, mail, drive, interview collect forms, record and tally data, contact media, assign areas of coverage, contact post office, etc.
5. Supervision and/or training of all volunteers recruited

CONFLICT NEGOTIATION EXERCISE

The following exercise can be used by two people who have a disagreement or conflict. It may be helpful to have a third person present to facilitate. For this exercise to work, both parties must wish to have some sort of resolution to the situation.

Procedure: Person A completes a sequence of four statements from his or her point of view.

1. Description of the current situation
   Examples: *The conflict I'm having with you is . . .*
   The disagreement I have with you is . . .
   The problem as I see it is . . .

2. Description of the ideal situation
   Examples: *The way I'd like the situation to be is . . .*
   What I'd like to see is . . .

3. Description of the current feeling
   Example: *The way I feel about the situation is . . .*

4. Description of self-intention
   Example: *What I'm willing to do to create what I want is . . .*

Person B then paraphrases what Person A has said. If the paraphrase is accurate, Person B then moves through the same sequence and Person A paraphrases.

Person A then asks, "Do we have a resolution?" If the answer is "no," Person A begins the sequence again. If the answer is "yes," both parties review their agreements.

Alternate Procedure: This exercise may be modified for use with groups by having representatives engage in the exercise and seek confirmation from the people they represent as to whether the conflict is resolved.

CONSEQUENCES OF VARIOUS NEEDS ASSESSMENT CHOICES

Question	Choice	Probable Consequences
1. Who builds the instrument?	SCG	High community and school ownership of the needs assessment. Skills for building instruments gained by SCG members. Persons affected are able to influence this activity. SCG members encouraged to have confidence in their ability to do the next activity.
	Outside Experts	Low community ownership. No skill building for local people. Persons affected unable to influence this activity.
2. How complex is the instrument?	Simple	Limited number of questions can be asked. Easily used and understood. Resulting data can be processed locally with limited time and energy from SCG. High community understanding of meaning of data.
	Complex	Large number of questions can be asked. May be difficult for SCG to use. Resulting data cannot be processed locally except with great investment of time and energy. Low understanding of meaning of data in community.
3. Who processes the data?	SCG	High ownership of resulting data. High use in local decision making. High understanding of meaning of data. May result in less than technically perfect data analysis. Skill building for local residents encourages them to understand their capacity for doing a task.
	Outside Experts	Low ownership of resulting data. Low understanding of meaning of data. Low use of data in local decision making. Technically sophisticated data analysis. No skill building for local residents.

CONSTRUCTING AND USING QUESTIONNAIRES

Advantages of Using Questionnaires

- You can easily contact large numbers of people spread over a wide area.
- They are less costly than person-to-person contacts over wide areas.
- Fewer persons are required to conduct a survey.

Disadvantages of Using Questionnaires

- Often, questionnaires are not returned.
- In bicultural areas, use of questionnaires requires proficiency in, and willingness to use, a common language.
- They are often impersonal. It is difficult to communicate purpose, goals, and uses.
- Respondents often choose not to follow directions.
- A mailed questionnaire may be completed by someone other than the intended respondent.

How to Construct Questionnaires

The following statements are intended to be helpful to the process facilitator who is faced with the task of getting an CG to construct a questionnaire. Rather than being prescriptive statements, they are guiding principles which may be modified to existing conditions.

1. Appropriateness of questionnaires--Decide whether a questionnaire is an appropriate way to get the information.
    a. The questionnaire should be valid--it should provide the kinds of answers you want.
    b. The questionnaire should be reliable--it should consistently provide the kinds of answers you want.
    c. The questionnaire should be representative--it should offer the respondent a chance to address all aspects of the problem.
    d. The questionnaire should be written in language that communicates with respondents simply and directly. Any technical words should be explained.

e. The questionnaire should not request irrelevant information. The process facilitator needs to help the CCG develop tools which do not provide more data than the CCG can handle quickly and efficiently. The time required by the respondent should be a factor in determining the length of the questionnaire.

f. Above all, the process facilitator needs to remember that the needs assessment is the community's own survey. Hence, matters of scientific or technical interest often must be sacrificed to practical needs.

2. Things to consider in getting started:

a. Demographic data--information about respondents such as age, sex, and race. If used at all, such data should be appropriate to the problem at hand. All requests, even for something as simple as the respondent's name, should be made explicit.

b. Formulating questions

(1) All questions should be phrased in a way that does not suggest or influence answers. Simple, factual questions should request information that is readily available to the respondent.

(2) Types of questions are:

(a) Open-ended questions--those in which the respondent is free to write any answer. For example: Will you please describe your feelings about education?

Advantages:

- tends to produce honest answers
- useful in obtaining judgments or opinions
- does not suggest answers
- reveals reasons for respondent's feelings

Disadvantages:

- takes longer to tabulate than fixed-alternative questions
- tends to reveal more emotion than fact

(b) Fixed-alternative questions--those in which the range of response is controlled. For example:

Do you think the schools are

_____good?

_____bad?

_____no opinion

Check one of the above

Advantages:

- responses are easy to classify
- data are easy to manage
- answers are simple and factual

Disadvantages:

- range of alternatives might be insufficient
- the question suggests the answer
- responses need careful consideration to yield desired information and this can be time consuming

(3) It may be desirable to start with broad, general questions and then proceed to more specific ones. Other kinds of sequences may be possible, but the process facilitator should be able to help the CG with the matter of sequencing.

3. Validating a Questionnaire--When working with an CG on questionnaire construction, the process facilitator should see to it that the entire CG is allowed to review a completed draft of the questionnaire. It might be a good idea for CG members to try filling out the questionnaire to see how it works. Or the CG may wish to invite persons they consider typical respondents to try out the questionnaire. One useful way to check out a questionnaire is to try to tabulate the data generated in a trial run. If the data are usable and easily managed, the questionnaire is probably good. If not, revisions may be called for.

4. Ethics--In conducting a questionnaire survey, you want to get as much information as you need, but you do not want to offend or violate the rights of the respondent.

   A cover letter clearly stating the purposes of the questionnaire and telling who is doing the survey, what the problem is, how important it is, and how the data will be used can serve as an effective way to guard against infringement of personal rights. This cover letter should also state that individual responses are to be held confidential. If it is possible for respondents to get the results, the cover letter should state this as well as provide clear instructions, perhaps including a stamped addressed envelope, for return of the completed questionnaire.

5. Format

   a. Instructions should be clear and explicit.

   b. Enough space should be provided for responses.

   c. Overall size should be convenient for handling and mailing.

6. Additional Hints--Attention to the following errors in questionnaire construction may be of some help:

   a. failing to pretest to check for ambiguous or objectionable questions

   b. asking too many questions, which make unreasonable demands on the respondent's time, produce more data than are usable, and cause a dropoff in the quality of later responses

   c. overlooking gross errors of format and grammar which might make an unfavorable impression

   d. selecting questions that are easily answered but do not serve the original purpose of the survey

   e. constructing questions so that results are influenced (leading questions, socially desirable responses, no negative response boxes, etc.)

   f. not planning analysis until after the survey is conducted

CONSTRUCTING QUESTIONNAIRES AND INTERVIEWS

The first task for a group constructing a questionnaire or an interview is to decide the topics of the questions to be asked. The results of a mini-needs assessment or visions of potentials session often serves as the basis for generating questions. Other sorts of decisions might be: (1) to ask the community what it likes and doesn't like about the community(often hard data to use, but produces "hot topics" that need attention); (2) to ask what three areas the CG could best work on in the coming school year (simple tabulation determines most popular topics may miss underlying problems); and (3) to ask detailed questions about these areas, soliciting attitudes and ideas on each (produces masses of data, may contain many small items for quick success of the CG). After the focus of the data is decided upon, instrument construction can begin.

To develop or improve skills in instrument construction:

- Divide the group into trios. Have each trio take one or more ideas or issues from a pre-existing list such as a mini-needs assessment, or have all groups work with the same broad focus.
- Distribute samples of various types of questions. The most helpful are "rating" questions, "prioritizing" questions, open-response questions, and multiple-choice questions.
- Study the samples; then individually try to write one question about each topic in each of the sample patterns.
- Share your sample questions; discuss which style seems to work best for each topic or type of information wanted.
- Jot down the insights or agreements you reach on why one kind of question is better than another for one or more kinds of topics. List pitfalls of some methods.
- Work together to construct one good question for each topic.
- In a large group, have each trio share ideas about good question formats for particular types of topics. Have a group recorder write these where they can be seen, eliminating overlaps from the groups. Share your "best" questions--write these on a blackboard or newsprint so the group can see them together.
- Discuss together how the data from the various types of questions would look. Ask yourselves if the data would be clear. Could it be interpreted? Could you make recommendations from it?
- Review the work to this point--is there a good question for each topic or type of data wanted, or is more work needed?

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- Decide whether to continue to work in the large group or to turn all work done at this point over to a small task force for completion of a preliminary instrument.
- Complete a first draft instrument.
- If it is an interview and contains open-response questions, develop some neutral probes to be used when response is insufficient.
- Try out the instrument in circumstances similar to its intended use.
- Examine the data resulting from the draft instrument. Is it manageable? Useful? Informative?
- Revise questions that are difficult to use or produce difficult or obscure data.
- Construct the final questionnaire--revise data-management plans to fit.

Common Errors in Questionnaire Construction

1. Failing to pretest to check for unintelligible, ambiguous, or objectional questions

2. Asking too many questions--thus making unreasonable demands on the respondent's time, producing more data than is usable or manageable, and causing a dropoff in the quality of later responses

3. Overlooking gross errors of format and grammar which might make an unfavorable impression

4. Selecting questions that are easily answered but do not serve the original purpose of the survey

5. Constructing questions so that biased results are obtained (leading questions, socially desirable responses, no negative response boxes, etc.)

6. Not planning the analysis until after they survey is conducted, which can create a format that makes tabulation cumbersome and slow

Common Errors in Interviewing

All of the above, plus:

1. Not writing the interview guide in enough detail

2. Insufficiently practicing needed skills of interviewing

3. Failing to establish safeguards against interviewer bias

4. Using language in the interview that is not understood by the respondent

5. Asking for information the respondent cannot be expected to have or may reasonably feel is confidential

CONTRASTING TWO NEEDS ASSESSMENT APPROACHES: GOALS & BARRIERS AND HARVEST OF CONCERNS

Goals and Barriers	Harvest of Concerns
1. Builds group feeling around common purpose	1. Splinters group into defensive units--polarizes
2. Uses logical steps--sets up easily for problem solving	2. Deals mostly with symptoms
3. Allows obstacles to be easily connected to goals	3. Results in quick and easy solutions that are often punitive in nature
4. Is futuristic	4. Emphasizes the past and the present
5. Enlists commitment	5. Produces negative feelings which are difficult to redirect positively
6. Builds interest and motivation	6. Produces high interest immediately and is corrective in nature
7. Is self-educating and has psychological order	7. Requires considerable professional help to move the group in a positive direction
8. Requires quite a bit of time	8. Moves quickly & allows people to vent
9. May miss "hot issues" in the community	9. May only represent immediate gripes and not larger goals

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CRITERIA FOR GIVING FEEDBACK

"Feedback" is a way of helping another person to consider a change in behavior. It is communication to a person (or a group) which gives that person information about how he/she affects others. As in guided missile systems, feedback helps individuals keep their behavior "on target" and thus better achieve their goals.

Some criteria for useful feedback:

1. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it or not to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language, it reduces the need for the individual to react defensively.

2. It is specific rather than general. To be told that one is "dominating" will probably not be as useful as to be told that "just now when we were deciding the issue, you did not listen to what others said, and I felt forced to accept your arguments or face attack from you".

3. It takes into account the needs of both the receiver and giver of feedback. Feedback can be destructive when it serves only our own needs and fails to consider the needs of the person on the receiving end.

4. It is directed toward behavior which the receiver can do something about. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some short-coming over which he has no control.

5. It is solicited, rather than imposed. Feedback is most useful when the receiver himself has some formulated the kind of question which those observing him can answer.

6. It is well-timed. In general, feedback is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behavior (depending, of course, on the person's readiness to hear it, support available from others, etc.).

7. It is checked to insure clear communication. One way of doing this is to have the receiver try to rephrase the feedback he has received to see if it corresponds to what the sender had in mind.

8. When feedback is given in a training group, both giver and receiver have the opportunity to check with others in the group on the accuracy of the feedback. Is this one person's impression or an impression shared by others?

Feedback, then, is a way of giving help; it is a corrective mechanism for the individuals who want to learn how well their behavior matches their intentions; and it is a means for establishing one's identity--for answering, "Who am I?"

CRITERIA FOR USE IN PREPARING GOAL STATEMENTS

A good goal statement usually is:

1. An optimistic and positive view of what could be
2. A global statement, containing things not easily measured
3. A demand for action and planning
4. Clearly stated and uses straightforward, simple language

Goal statements should not "say" how goals are to be achieved. Solutions contain the means of obtaining the desired goals.

SAMPLE GOAL STATEMENT

#1. We want our school to be a place where people (especially parents with children in school) feel free to go with their questions (problems); where they are received in a courteous and friendly manner and problems or questions are answered with promptness and accuracy. In addition, we believe all our citizens should feel well-informed on school matters and recognize they have a real voice in helping to guide decisions that affect their children's education.

#2. We want our community to be a place where people enjoy living; where they feel wanted and needed; where they can raise their children in safety and confidence; where local government and public agencies expect citizens to influence the direction and flow of local services; and racial and religious tolerance is the expected practice.

DECISION MAKING BY CONSENSUS

RATIONALE AND EXERCISE: FRED LITTLE

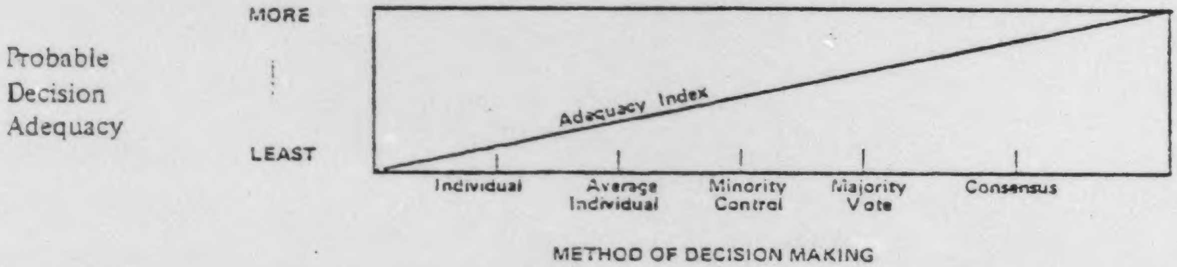
Research has indicated fairly consistently that decisions produced by groups which interact in reaching a decision are superior to both the majority of individual judgments or the average of individual decisions. An increase in decision adequacy seems to occur in groups in which the decision-makers actively discuss the issues surrounding the decision.

Research has usually compared three decision-making tehniques: (1) decision by individual and/or minority faction (2) decisions based on the support of a majority of the group members, and (3) decisions based on equal support and agreement of the total group membersiup

Decisions based on the minority control technique more often than not are the least effective in producing adequate decisions.

The majority vote technique has been found to be superior to the minority control technique in terms of producing adequate decisions. This may be due to the fact that more interaction does result under the majority vote technique than in the minority control technique.

The last technique, consensus, represents a pattern of interaction in which all group members share equally in the final decision. No decision becomes final which cannot meet with the approval of each and every member. By approval we mean a decision with which you are comfortable and can support even if not the ultimate in your opinion. Research data indicates that the consensus technique results in decisions of superior quality.



The impatient autocrat has sometimes claimed that a group output is limited to the level of the least skilled member. Research has shown this not to be so. Especially in the consensus technique where the group product represents a form of insurance that a decision will be obtained which is superior to that obtainable from individuals or majority vote.

PROCEDURE:

Consensus means that the total group must agree on what they would do with Fred Little. Consensus is difficult to reach. In all likelihood the final decision will not be what everyone wanted if they could have what they perceive as "perfection." As a group you must come to a decision with which all group members can partially agree.

GUIDES:

1. Try to understand why the others reached their individual decisions. Ask for help from them for your clarification.

2. Avoid argument supporting only your individual judgment. Approach on basis of logic.

3. Avoid changing mind only to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support decisions with which you are able to agree somewhat.

4. Avoid "conflict – reducing" techniques such as majority vote, averaging, trading in reaching consensus.

5. View difference of opinion as helpful rather than a hindrance in decision-making.

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Purpose of Exercise:

FRED LITTLE

(Adjust the company names and occupations to fit local employment opportunities.)

Fred Little has worked for the Mt. McKinley Company as a pipefitter for half a year. He has just recently been elected to a new post in his local union. In his short time with the company he has made a good showing on the job and has also made many friends with the other workers. Before being employed by the Mt. McKinley Company he worked as a lathe operator for a local machine tool company. Fred quit this previous job after he and two other men had argued violently with their foreman. The argument centered around a disagreement as to the way an operation should be performed. Subsequent events proved Fred was right. After quitting, however, Fred had difficulty in getting another job. During these months of unemployment, medical bills and other debts piled up.

Now a new problem has arisen for Fred. His wife is due for an expensive operation next month and his medical insurance will cover only a fraction of the cost. Fred has become nervous and irritable. His fellow workers have noticed that he has become moody and argues at the drop of the hat.

On Friday a foreman, Mr. Harvey, caught Fred smoking on the job. This is against the formal rules although, unofficially, it is known that some of the workers do smoke from time to time. This is the first time Fred has smoked on the job, and he feels that Mr. Harvey is just making an example out of him to show the others "who is boss." Fred knows the penalty for the "no smoking" violation – a three day layoff without pay. He cannot afford the loss of wages. Yesterday he went to the union steward, John Williams, with his problem. Williams knows Fred to be a conscientious worker, who as far as he knows, has never smoked on the job before. He is willing to make an issue out of the incident, especially since he believes the "no smoking" rule is not fair because smoking does not create a safety hazard on this job.

Williams has taken this grievance to you, Fred's foreman, as the first step in the grievance procedure. You must decide what to do with FRED LITTLE.

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☐ 1. Don't penalize Fred. Revise the Rule Book so that a penalty is not applicable to a smoking violation.

☐ 2. Give Fred a second chance by not penalizing him for his first offense. At the same time, discuss the problem with him to see if he has any suggestions concerning the rule as far as the other workers are concerned.

☐ 3. Don't penalize Fred this time, but make it clear that he is getting by with it only because Williams, the union steward, is complaining about it.

☐ 4. Give Fred a reduced penalty of a two-day layoff without pay plus a second reprimand.

☐ 5. Make it clear that the rules are made to be enforced although Fred can forfeit the three days anytime in the next two months.

☐ 6. Enforce the rule as it stands; give Fred the three-day layoff.

☐ 7. Enforce the rule and reprimand Fred severely for the infraction, making it clear to him that it is going in on his company record.

☐ 8. Because of his poor record with a previous company, Fred should be fired.

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DEVELOPING PROGRAM EVALUATION PLANS*

A program evaluation plan...

- has simple, clearly defined variables related to the problem
- has variables that can be measured at all stages of the process
- relates measurable changes to the variables
- contains a systematic, continuous process
- has a feedback mechanism
- utilizes subjective observations
- utilizes knowledge about validity and reliability
- results in good generalizations about why change has or has not taken place

However, a program evaluation plan is not...

- a test of theory
- void of value judgments
- concerned only with the product
- a single assessment
- a mechanical process
- an attempt to quantify
- intended to hold someone accountable through false generalizations
- a final answer

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*Adapted from Leslie H. Browder, Jr., W. A. Alkins, Jr., and Esin Kaya, Developing an Educationally Accountable Program (Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1973).

DISTINGUISHING "WHATS FROM "HOWS" IN THE ANALYSIS PROCESS

During the problem-solving process it is important to defer solutions (hows) and continue to define objectives (whats) through the process of analysis. Most persons tend to be very much solution-oriented, therefore, it is important to recognize "whats" from "hows" and store away the hows as they may emerge merely to get them out of the way at this time.

For purposes of illustration, suppose we are making an analysis of "assisting a rural community solve educational problems." Some "hows" that might emerge are:

Hold a training workshop for citizens

Purchase or develop materials for use with school-community groups

Develop a profile of each community

Hire a consultant

The foregoing "hows" would be stored. They are not desired at this point. Instead we are looking for "whats." In this problem, some of the whats might be:

Assist Community Advisory Council learn skills of group work.

Increase field consultants' understanding of this assigned community.

Improve the skills of field consultants to help local people identify and solve problems.

Help local citizens, educators and students follow systematic problem solving processes.

EFFECTIVE GROUP SURVEY

Process facilitators, process observers, and group members at large may sometimes want to assess the group's capability for working productively. This survey can be used by one or many, with the results posted and discussed toward the end of a meeting.

Directions: Circle the letter opposite each item on the survey below that best describes, for you, the group's interactions.

The scale used is:

A = All group members
B = Most group members (two-thirds or more)
C = About half the group members
D = A few group members (one-third or fewer)
E = None of this group

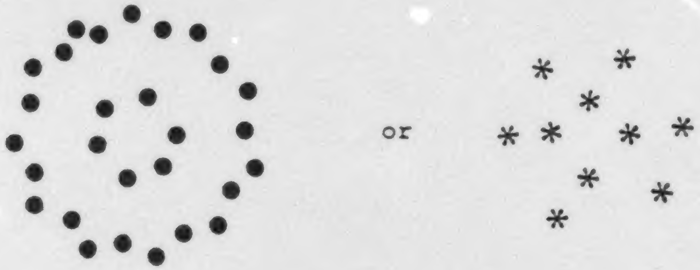
During this (or the most recent) session, how many group members, including yourself:

	All	Most	Half	Few	None
1. Gave due consideration to all seriously intended contributions of other group members?	A	B	C	D	E
2. Checked (by paraphrasing, etc.) to make sure they knew what was really meant before agreeing or disagreeing?	A	B	C	D	E
3. Spoke only for themselves and let others speak for themselves?	A	B	C	D	E
4. Viewed all contributions as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decided?	A	B	C	D	E
5. Had the opportunity to participate in the group if they desired to do so?	A	B	C	D	E
6. Tried to find the reason if the group was having trouble getting work done?	A	B	C	D	E
7. Helped the group make decisions openly rather than by default?	A	B	C	D	E
8. Helped bring conflict into the open so the group could deal with it?	A	B	C	D	E
9. Looked upon behavior which hindered group process as a group problem, rather than as a "problem member?"	A	B	C	D	E

FISHBOWL:
A GROUP PROCESS TECHNIQUE

Purposes: To facilitate discussion in a large group or to practice the skills of participation/observation.

Procedure: Form a small circle of chairs within an enclosing circle of the full group.



Select a small number of people to sit in the inner circle. Have the central group attend to whatever is on the full group's agenda (discussion, skills practice, simulation, etc.), while the remaining members of the group observe.

Alternative Procedures:

1. Provide one or two empty chairs in the inside circle so that observers may join the activity on a temporary, rotating basis.
2. If the small group will be discussing issues affecting the full group, select participants to be as representative as possible of the large group.
3. Alternate observers and participants periodically.

FIVE DIMENSIONS OF GROUP GROWTH

There are five dimensions along which groups typically develop and grow. They have to do with clarity about membership, influence, feelings, individual differences and productivity. People in new groups tend to concern themselves with these dimensions in the order just given.

Membership -- When you become part of a new group, the first thing you're apt to care about is what it will mean to be a member. How will others expect you to act? When should you speak and how do you go about it? If you say something as a joke, will others laugh or will they think you were being serious? Is it all right to come late, to leave early, to smoke, to dress informally? Will membership in this group hold the same values and attitudes? Will membership in this group facilitate or conflict with other roles you have in life? Will membership in this group be stimulating, boring, exciting, threatening, rewarding, inconsequential?

Influence -- As the meaning of membership becomes clearer, attention generally turns to questions of influence. Who is the leader of this group? Is there a chairman? Will the "real leader" please stand up? How do decisions get made? In what ways do people try to influence each other? Are individuals open to letting others influence them? What opportunities are there for you to influence or carry leadership functions? Are there individuals in the group who care more about the power of being leaders than they do about the goals and issues of the group?

Feelings -- As norms of membership and influence become clear, the expression of feelings becomes increasingly important. When others like an idea or action, do they say so? When there is boredon, frustration or anger, is this shared openly so that it can be worked out constructively? Can you express your feelings freely as they occur so you don't have to bottle them and let them build up to a point where they burst through inappropriately? Do people wait until they "get out the door" to tell one or two colleagues how they "really felt about the meeting"? Is the expression of negative feelings seen as honest feedback that can help, rather than a destructive attack? Again, is expression of positive feelings seen as honest feedback, rather than simply trying to influence or "gilding the lily."

Individual Differences--Each member of a group represents certain unique experiences, knowledge and skills. Few groups seem to reach a point where they take maximum advantage of these individual differences. It's rather common for members of a group to reach a level of sharing feelings where each sees the others as likable because they are pretty much the same as himself. This is sometimes referred to as the "honeymoon stage." If enough trust develops, the members may begin to be able to both recognize and value the individual differences that each possesses. A new set of questions takes on meaning. Do the members take time and effort to learn about the experiences, attitudes, knowledge, values, skills and ideologies of each other? Does each work at sharing his own ideas in order to get others' reactions and different ways of looking at issues? Do they let each other know they appreciate these differences even when they don't necessarily agree with them?

Productivity--Most groups exist for a purpose that involves some kind of product. It might simply be to have fun together. It might be to build better mouse traps or to improve the learning experiences of children.

The product of many groups tends toward a "lowest common denominator" of that potential which the individuals in the group are capable. Depending upon how norms of membership, influence, feelings and individual differences get worked out, a group can reach a level of creative productivity. Ideas of different individuals can be combined into better new ideas which no one alone would have thought of. These questions become important. How much energy goes into arguing about which ideas are "better" or "right" as compared to energy spent on developing new ideas from combining old ones? Is effort spent on diagnosing situations to bring out underlying issues? When problems are raised, is there a value for working them through thoroughly as opposed to moving quickly toward action? Do members take the time to seek your reactions and ideas? Do the norms of the group's organization support time and ways for you to give your reactions and ideas?

There are two kinds of results from the ways a new group works out these five dimensions of its growth. One concerns task accomplishment. Tasks may be accomplished efficiently or inefficiently, thoroughly or only partially, with high quality or in a shoddy manner. The other kind of result has to do with maintenance of the group. There may be high esprit de corps where individuals are pleased and excited to be members. There may be confusion and frustration where individuals readily leave the group.

FOCUSING ON A PROBLEM

Purposes

1. Focusing and framing the problem
2. Involving participants so that their interests are represented
3. Identifying some resources that will aid problem solving

Theory

1. Solving a problem involves three types of inquiry:
    a. deciding what is desired (the goal)
    b. deciding what the present state is, what forces are contributing to the problem, and what obstacles there are to its solution
    c. deciding what actions ought to happen if the goal is to be achieved
2. When a group aids in problem solving (policy development) it is possible to ensure:
    a. lots of ideas
    b. better ideas
    c. a creative pooling of ideas for more realistic forecasting
3. These potential advantages may not be realized if group members:
    a. hold back their ideas
    b. engage simultaneously in the different types of inquiry
4. Advantages may be best realized if the group convener:
    a. organizes the problem for presentation
    b. involves group members in all three types of inquiry at an early stage of problem solving
    c. keeps everyone engaged in the same level of inquiry

Activity

1. Describing the Problem

    A problem is the discrepancy between "what is desired" and "what is." The problem statement should:

   a. describe concretely the goal that is not being reached
   b. describe the situation as it is now

2. Involving group members in:

   a. Identifying

      1. Present and discuss the problem statement, checking to be sure that each group member understands the goal.
      2. Ask group members to list subgoals needed to accomplish the main goal.
      3. Find out what other items anyone would like to have considered.
      4. List sources of information that can help accomplish subgoals.

   b. Clarifying

      1. Order the items according to similarity.
      2. Code each item for the amount of time required and for whether the item involves a report, discussion, or some other action.
      3. Fill in the gaps--Have you planned to make a decision before planning to obtain relevant information?

   c. Selecting

      1. Group the items according to time blocks.
      2. Eliminate redundancy.
      3. Establish priorities and sequencing.
      4. Check to see if each participant understands the agenda and believes that his resources will be used.

FUNCTIONS THAT HELP GROUPS

For a group to be effective, these functions must take place. *Any* person can apply these functions to help a group work on *any* task. When any of these functions are omitted, the effectiveness of the group declines. Any group member needs to be prepared to fill any of these functions whenever it appears helpful to the group.

Initiating Activity: helping the group get started; proposing solutions; suggesting new ideas, new definitions of the problem, new attacks on the problem, or new organization of what has already been discussed

Seeking Information: asking for clarification of suggestions that have been made, requesting additional information

Seeking Opinion: trying to help the group find out what persons think or *feel* about what is being discussed; seeking clarification of opinions offered

Giving Information: offering useful information; relating one's own experience to illustrate a point

Giving Opinion: stating an opinion concerning a suggestion; expressing what one thinks or feels, rather than offering further facts

Elaborating: offering further clarifications of points, trying to "spell out" what other members have already said or to help the group imagine how a proposal would work if adopted

Coordinating: showing relationships among different kinds of ideas; trying to pull ideas and suggestions together; trying to draw together the activities of various subgroups

Summarizing: pulling together related ideas or suggestions; restating suggestions after the group has discussed them; organizing ideas so the group will know what it has said

Testing Workability: making application of suggestions to real situations; examining the practicality and workability of ideas; trying to help the group test a proposed decision for workability

GOAL CONGRUENCY

1. A school system cannot be all things to all people. Considering the staff in your school sytem, the financial support for the system, the kinds of children who attend the schools, and the attitudes of the community, what would you feel are the four primary objectives towards which effort should be put in your school system during the next two years? Put "1" by the most important, "2" by the next most, "3" by the next most important and "4" for the next most important. Remember, you are thinking of objectives for this school system for the next two years. Use only the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 to show the four objectives you feel are primary. Leave the other items blank.

a.____Reducing the dropout rate
b.____Improving attention to basic skills in the first three grades
c.____Improving attention to physical health and safety of students
d.____Increasing children's motivation and desire to learn
e.____Improving learning opportunities for disadvantaged children
f.____Increasing the percentage of college attendance by seniors
g.____Improving discipline and the behavior of "difficult" children
h____Improving the quality of student academic achievement at all levels
i____Improving children's adherence to moral and ethical standards
j.____Improving learning opportunities for gifted or talented children
k.____Other......specify:____________________

2. Please think of the person (or group) to whom are you immediately responsible (for example, your principal or department head if you are a teacher: particular central office administration if you are a principal and so on.) Write the position of this person (or group) here (not names). Position of person or group to whom I am mainly responsible:____________________.

3. Now here is the same list of objective again. This time, please estimate how the person whose position you have written above would answer it. Put "1" to show your estimate of what he or she would regard as the most important objective for the next two years, "2" by the next most, and so on. Use only the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 and leave the rest blank. If you are not sure, give your best guess as to what the person's primary objectives for the system are.

a. Reducing the dropout rate
b. Improving attention to basic skills in the first three grades
c. Improving attention to physical health and safety of students
d. Increasing children's motivation and desire to learn
e. Improving learning opportunities for disadvantaged children
f. Increasing the percentage of college attendance by seniors
g. Improving discipline and the behavior of "difficult" children
h. Improving the quality of student academic achievement at all levels
i. Improving children's adherence to moral and ethical standards
j. Improving learning opportunities for gifted or talented children
k. Other....specify____________________

GROUP AGREEMENTS

A group functions better if members are clear about what kinds of behavior they expect of each other as group members.

Here are some samples of agreements a group might make.

1. Confidentiality: When talking with people who are not members of this group, I understand that I may report anything that happens in the group if I do not name or identify individual members in connection with incidents that might embarrass or reflect unfavorably upon them.

2. Directness: If I am dissatisfied with the way the group is going, I will report my reactions directly to the members when it is in session.

   If another member tells me of his dissatisfaction outside of a regular session with the group, I will suggest that he bring up the matter at a regular session.

3. Survey: Any member may ask for a survey at any time. The requesting member states what he wants to know from the total group. Others then paraphrase or clarify the topic until all are clear what they are being asked. Each person briefly states his current position on the topic in two or three sentences.

   A survey is not a vote. It does not bind the group or its members.

   A survey must be taken at the time it is requested; it suspends any other activity.

TASK: Your group should now discuss and decide:

1. Whether you wish to make any group agreements

2. If so, what they shall be

GROUP MEMBER FUNCTIONS - OBSERVER FORM

Name								
1. Initiating: Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting a procedure or ideas for solving a problem....								
2. Information or opinion seeking; requesting facts; seeking relevant information about a group concern; stating a belief; giving suggestions or ideas.								
3. Information or opinion giving; offering facts; providing relevant information about group concern; stating a belief; giving suggestions or ideas.								
4. Clarifying or elaborating: Interpreting or reflecting ideas and suggestions; clearing up confusions; indicating alternatives and issues before the group; giving examples.								
5. Summarizing: Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after group has discussed them; offering a decision or conclusion for the group to accept or reject....								
6. Consensus testing: Sending up "trial" balloons to see if group is nearing a conclusion; checking with group to see how much agreement has been reached.								

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GROUP OBSERVER'S REACTION SHEET (Use one sheet for each activity)

I felt this group:

1. Never got the idea of the task clear — Understood what it was supposed to do

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Was interested in doing this task — Was not interested in attempting this task

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Encouraged the participation and contribution of all members — Was dominated by one or a few members to the exclusion of the others

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Functioned with hostility or internal competition — Had a cooperative atmosphere

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Was assisted by having group roles of recorder and observer functioning — Was hindered by group role assignments of recorder and/or observer

Recorder: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Observer: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comments or ideas:

Instructions:

Observe your group with skills in mind. Estimate the degree to which the groups use each one. Check it.

	(little)							(much)
1. Listening Skills: - Paraphrasing - Repeating - Check perceptions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. Saying Skills: - Speaking directly - Not repetitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. Openness: - Spontaneous - Reports own strengths - Reports feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. Trust: - Tries out others ideas - Asks for help	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. Feedback: - Asks for reaction to self - Gives feedback in useful ways - Reports when helped	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. Awareness of Own Behavior: - Acknowledges personal reactions - Uses reactions in deciding how to behave	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. Experimenting with Own Behavior: - Taking and evaluating new roles - Identifies need for shifting roles - Reports personal meanings of role taking - Asks for feedback on role taking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. Contributing to Group's Awareness of Itself: - Calls attention to what is happening - Offers own views of what is happening - Raises questions about what is happening	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. Problem Solving Effectiveness: - Knows and uses problem solving tools - Helps group make decisions - Initiates problem solving activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. Helping Group Maintenance: - Expresses feeling - Asks others to express feeling - Supports others expression of feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. Group Diagnostic Ability: - Explains *why* things happen - Involves group in producing diagnostic information about itself - Interprets diagnosis to facilitate corrective action	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. Overall Effectiveness as a Group Member: - Invites group to evaluate how it is doing - Suggests resources for learning - Facilitates using resources of the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

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GROUP PROCESS CHECKLIST

Periodically, it may be useful for each group member to check perceptions of the group process by circling the appropriate number on a scale of 1 to 5.

5 = Operating Ideally

1 = Missing Completely

1. LISTENING

Members don't really listen to one another--they interrupt and don't try to understand others.	1 2 3 4 5	All members really listen and try hard to understand.

2. OPEN COMMUNICATION

Members are guarded or cautious in discussions.	1 2 3 4 5	Members express both thoughts and feelings openly.

3. MUTUAL TRUST AND CONFIDENCE

Members evidence suspicion of one another's motives.	1 2 3 4 5	Members trust one another and do not fear ridicule or reprisal.

4. ATTITUDES TOWARD DIFFERENCES WITHIN GROUP

Members avoid arguments, smooth over differences, suppress or avoid conflicts.	1 2 3 4 5	Members search for, respect, and accept differences and work through them openly--they are not pressured to conform.

5. MUTUAL SUPPORT

Members are defensive about themselves and their functions.	1 2 3 4 5	Members are able to give and receive help.

6. INVOLVEMENT-PARTICIPATION

Discussion is dominated by a few members.	1 2 3 4 5	All members are involved, free to participate in any way they choose.

7. CONTROL METHODS

Subject matter and decisions are controlled by the chairperson.	1	2	3	4	5	All members accept responsibility for productive discussion and for decisions.

8. FLEXIBILITY

The group is locked in on established rules and members find it hard to change procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	Members readily change procedures in response to new situations.

9. USE OF MEMBER RESOURCES

Individuals' knowledge, abilities, and experience not utilized.	1	2	3	4	5	Each member's knowledge, abilities, and experience are fully utilized.

10. OBJECTIVES OR PURPOSES

Objectives are not clear or not understood and there is no commitment to them.	1	2	3	4	5	Objectives are clear, are understood, and there is full commitment to them.

Should your group wish to analyze its process, have each member anonymously rate each variable on the scale of from 1 to 5. Average the ratings for each variable and discuss those which appear at 3 or lower. It may also be useful to indicate the highest and lowest rated variables and discuss those on which the range between high and low is unusually wide.

HELPER-HELPEE RELATIONSHIPS IN GROUPS DEVELOPING PROBLEM STATEMENTS

The development of problem statements is no different than many other tasks: a group product tends to be better than that produced by a single individual. However, for a group to work together as a team, certain roles must be played by the small group members. Here we are referring to two roles, helper and helpee. Those roles must be played in a helpful, cooperative, positive manner. Below are listed certain behaviors or questions covering each role. Participants should frequently check themselves to see if they stay within the role. It is permissable to raise the question within the small group if members are not playing their proper role.

HELPEE:

The helpee's role is to get as much value in developing his own product or improving the product as he can from the helpers. The following types of behaviors seem to assist in this process:

Are you being clear?
Do you take time to clarify?
Are you using words and terms that are understood?
Are you being direct and to the point?
Are you checking to see whether the others have heard?
What kind of non-verbal behaivor are you using?
Are you indicating how you want to be helped, in what way or style (as "argue with me", "tell me what you have heard," "ask me questions")?
Are you letting helper know when you have been helped?
Are you letting helper know in what ways he has been helpful?
Are you letting helper know when he has not been helpful?
Are you letting helper know what you need to be helped?

HELPER:

The helper's role is a sort of inquiry process to help the helpee develop his own product. The helper is not there to argue for his point of view but to clarify, develop and guide the helpee. As helper ask yourself questions like the following:

Am I listening?
Do I ask the helpee to repeat?
Have I asked the helpee to illustrate?
Do I repeat what I have heard to see if I am getting it right?
Do I seem to understand?
What non-verbal clues am I giving the helpee?
Do I press for specifics and clarification.
Do I give the helpee clues (verbal or non-verbal) confirming understanding?
Do I direct or re-direct analysis in new and productive directions?
Do I provide closure by confirming when he is getting things clearly?
Do I ask for illustrations?
Am I being supportive (not just being nice)?

INTERACTION BETWEEN HELPER AND HELPEE:

Both helper and helpee need to ask themselves questions such as the following to see if they are leveling with each other:

Are you really following each other?
Are you maintaining continuity or jumping from one thing to another?
Are you checking for understanding?
Are you doing the job of clarifying the problem you are working on?
Have you noticed times when you did or said something that caused the others to become actively involved?
Have you done or said things that caused others to become less active and withdrawn?

HELPFUL QUESTIONS FOR FACILITATING GROUP INTERACTION AND DISCUSSION*

The questions below can be used to help clarify ideas and to facilitate group discussion.

1. To clarify purpose, ask
    - What is your goal in suggesting or using this idea?
    - What are you after?
    - Why would you be doing it?
2. To clarify definitions, ask
    - What do you mean when you say that . . . ?
    - What would be some examples of your idea?
3. To clarify the sources of someone's ideas, ask
    - What groups or authors agree with you?
    - Where were these ideas started?
    - Where could we get data to support your ideas?
    - Is that based on personal experience, on data, or on both?
4. To expand information about the idea, ask
    - Could we hear more?
    - How might we find out more about your views?
    - How can we help you build your ideas?
    - Do you have other reasons for saying that?
    - What would be examples of your idea?

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*These materials have been adapted from the works of Sid Simon of Temple University, Louis Raths of the University of Maryland, and Merril Harmin of Southern Illinois University.

5. To clarify how long the person has held an idea, ask
   - Is this a current belief you hold?
   - Have you been feeling this way long?
   - Do you feel you will always think that?
6. To clarify crucial factors, ask
   - Which event was most significant in causing you to feel this way?
   - What incident aided you most in forming your point of view?
7. To point out inconsistencies, ask
   - Is this consistent with other points of view you have expressed?
8. To question the usefulness of an idea, ask
   - Would it be beneficial for us?
   - Could we make that idea work for our group?
   - Is it something you (value) (like) (need)?
   - What are some bad aspects of the idea?
9. To consider consequences, ask
   - If we were to use your idea, what might we anticipate?
   - If implemented, would your idea create a better situation?
   - Where will you idea take us?
10. To clarify the strength of an idea, ask
    - How sure are you?
    - Could any other points of view be valid?
11. To consider alternatives, ask
    - What other choices might the group make?
    - Was this your only choice?
    - What other possibilities are there?

12. To point out similarities and dissimilarities of ideas, ask
    - In what ways is your idea similar to Bill's?
    - Where do you and Bill differ?

13. To summarize, ask
    - Can one of you recall the facts we discussed?
    - Who can play back the data we have uncovered?

14. To provide an opportunity for insight and evaluation, ask
    - If given the opportunity to present this idea again, what would you do differently?
    - How did you feel while we were discussing this idea?
    - Would you share an idea with this group again?

15. To encourage people to share other ideas, ask questions which would
    - help a group test to see if one member's belief is universally accepted
    - test limitations of a person's ideas
    - give a person the chance to list exceptions to his or her ideas
    - encourage a person to list alternatives to an idea
    - bring out evidence counter to a person's ideas
    - cause a group to locate inconsistencies in a proposal
    - cause persons to inspect the credibility of their information sources

HOW PRODUCTIVE GROUPS ACT

Why are some groups more successful than others? Why are some groups able to work together more easily than others? People who have worked with groups and studied group behavior report these differences:

In Productive Groups	In Less Productive Groups
1. People listen and pay attention to one another.	1. People do not listen and all tend to talk at the same time.
2. People discuss the subject at hand.	2. The discussion jumps from one idea to another.
3. Everyone's ideas and suggestions are welcomed.	3. Some members' ideas don't seem "to count," so these people do not act as if they really belong to the group.
4. Everyone has a chance to state his or her views.	4. One or two people do all the talking.
5. The group uses its agenda as a guide for discussion.	5. The agenda is not clear and there is no written guide for discussion.
6. One or two members are appointed to summarize the discussion and to see that everyone has had a chance to speak.	6. No one summarizes or checks to see if everyone who wants to speak has actually spoken. Discussions go on and on until people get tired.
7. Members know and use problem-solving steps.	7. No order is followed for identifying and solving problems.
8. Members are clear about group decisions and committed to them.	8. Decision making is muddy and people are not committed to the group's plans.

Adapted from "Research Utilizing Problem Solving," Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

HOW TO BUILD AN AGENDA FOR A CG MEETING

Building an agenda for a CG meeting involves the basic idea that people have a right to influence decisions which affect them. Experienced community developers suggest using the following steps to build an agenda for a CG meeting.

1. The Program Associate reviews the group's progress, as well as the skill training and resources it might need; then the PA gathers resources for the next meeting.
2. The PA prepares a temporary agenda to accomplish what he or she feels is a reasonable target for the next meeting, reviews this agenda, then TEARS IT UP AND THROWS IT AWAY.
3. The PA and the CG chairperson meet to discuss the group's current needs and tasks and the activities, processes, and resources that might be useful.
4. Together, the PA and chairperson build a temporary agenda, discuss who could conduct each activity, arrange for or gather resources needed to do the activities, review the temporary agenda, then either discard it or print up a clearly labeled TEMPORARY agenda to pass out to the entire group.
5. At the beginning of the meeting, the chairperson briefly reviews the group's needs and tasks and leads a discussion of the suggested activity and processes. Then, with members contributing ideas and suggested items, the group builds an agenda for the meeting. This can be done most easily on a blackboard or newsprint so it is visible to everyone.

This set of activities takes more time than if one or two people were to build a fixed agenda, but it accomplishes several ends. It applies the skills and information of the PF team to the tasks and problems of the group. It utilizes the chairperson's special knowledge of local circumstances. Also the information, ideas, and skills of the entire group are tapped, and all persons involved have an opportunity to influence activities in which they are to take part. This is an important aspect of the PRI Process.

A PA needs to be ready to intervene actively if the chairperson has difficulty in building an agenda with a group. The activity is best conducted rapidly, but without ignoring any contributions from the group. If only a few people oppose an activity or idea, the chairperson or a PA can seek their permission to at least try it since much of the group is interested.

Sometimes group members feel that items from previous meetings need to be finished. If these items are not added to the agenda, some other way of recognizing their validity can be used. It is important that this activity be friendly and open and not take up long periods of time. It is essential however, that all group members understand that each of them is welcome to influence the work of the group.

HOW TO BUILD EVALUATION PLANS

Evaluation is, among other things, the process of determining if you have done what you wanted to do (reached your objectives). In order to find out how close you came to doing what you wanted to do, you must collect some information (often called data) and decide what it tells you about what has been accomplished (interpreting data). All evaluation techniques, from a simple head count of graduates from a program to complex statistical measures, are just various ways of doing these tasks. Remember that the best evaluation is one that helps in decision making. Gather only information which will actually assist you in making decisions about the program in question.

A simple, but useful, system for building an evaluation plan is a four-column chart:

PROGRAM OBJECTIVE	PROCEDURES	DATA TO BE COLLECTED AND WHEN	HOW THE DATA WILL BE USED
What you intend to accomplish or to have happen	What you intend to do to make it happen	Indicators of success or how you will determine when you have done or accomplished what you wanted	What decision will it help with
1	2	3	4

1. Program objectives. Any new program needs clear (but not complex) objectives. Most results of a new program should not be unexpected. State as simply as possible what it is you hope to accomplish, when you will have it done, what conditions you will do it under, and how completely you will have to accomplish your objectives to consider your program a

success. These statements of objectives are often most useful if each is just one or a few sentences long, and are written in simple language that everybody can understand.

2. Procedures. This column tells how you plan to accomplish your purposes. It is often useful to further divide this column into

1. How you intend to do something; and

2. How you actually do something, and fill the second part in as the program is in action. This will be a great help to people trying to do similar things later, as well as helping you make good decisions during and after the program.

3. Data to be Collected and When. The best data is that which will help people make decisions of various kinds about the program. Early in the program these decisions will be around questions such as: "Does it seem to be going the way we intended? What might we tinker with to make it work better? Do we need more or different resources (or people) to make it go the way we had intended? Are there any unexpected results which need attention?" In general, the question is, "How are we doing? Decisions at the end of the program are more often: "Did we do what we said we wanted to do? Was it worth it in human and/or economic terms? What would we want to change if we did it again? Would we want to do it again at all?" Signs of success (called indicators) which help to answer these questions are ones you will want to list in building your evaluation plan. Your evaluation plan should provide for the collection of data at regular points throughout the program to help make the key decisions. If points in the program at which decisions will be made can be identified in advance, it will help your evaluation planning a great deal.

The most useful signs of success will be those that the people involved in the program agree together will help them to make decisions. Determine together what it would be useful to know, then find or construct ways of collecting that data. A rough, homemade measure of what you want to know that will really be used is more valuable than an expensive instrument developed by someone else that yields information no one uses. Plain counting is often the most useful evaluation tool. "Twenty-five percent increase in daily attendance," or "five boys with reform school experience graduated from high school this year when none had before" may be the kind of indicators which tell you what you really want to know. Again, try to identify ahead of time points during the project when such indicators can help tell you how it is going, so you can make decisions about changing things, continuing them, adding resources, etc., to make a good program better.

4. How the data will be used. Explain briefly what kinds of decisions each type of collected data will assist. Thinking this through can help eliminate extra or overlapping types of data and data collection processes, in order to do only that which will be used. Improved programs are the intended aim of evaluation. Taxing the program staff and resources to collected data which will not be used, weakens the program. Careful planning before data is collected will save time, tempers, money, paper and frustration.

Many more complext patterns for evaluation exist. If your project has complicated goals, or you need information for decision making which you can't figure out a way to get, your local or state educational research and evaluation specialists can be consulted, or text about evaluation studied. If you think you want data analysis in statistical terms, (because you are sure you know how to use it) be sure you involve someone in your planning who has been doing such analysis regularly and recently. He can help you design your data collection instruments so that it is easy to put the data on a computer. If you don't do this before the data collection begins, it is often very time-consuming (and expensive) to redo it later.

Plan your final report now

Build an outline of your final report during the planning stage, to remind yourselves of information you will want to gather during the project. Your final evaluation report will include a description of the data collected, the analysis and consideration those results were given, and the decisions that were made because of the results. Unexpected results of the program should be included. It should also contain some indication of how the project affected the people and institutions mose closely associated with it. The total impact of the program should be indicated as clearly (and as succinctly) as possible. Recommendations for changes, continuation, or discontinuation should be made.

HOW TO BUILD SIMULATION EXERCISES

Simulations are approximations of reality which enable people to practice responding to real situations spontaneously and competently--without being limited to predetermined, prescribed ways of doing so. Experience in designing and running simulations can be useful when preparing for concil or board presentations.

Steps in Building Simulations

1. State what you want to learn or practice. Be as specific as possible.

2. Identify the situation, the issues, the events you expect to confront and for which you want practice. What do you expect will happen? What do you hope will happen? What do you fear might happen?

3. List who is involved in the situation or events. Sketch out the roles and the behaviors of those involved. Sketch them in enough detail so that someone can play each role. Plan to have some people observe the simulation.

4. List specific events to which participants can react.

5. List specific things for observers to watch for.

6. Decide how feedback from observers and your own reactions can be most effectively used.

7. Estimate the time required to enact the simulation.

8. Clarify the sequence of actions in the simulation.

9. Prepare for the simulation:

   - Arrange the room to approximate the real situation.

   - Have the person or persons playing "themselves" prepare for the simulation with coaches who help them with their roles and with the interpretation of what happens.

   - Have other participants prepare for their roles.

   - Have observers prepare to make observations, using audio-visual equipment, if available.

10. Run the simulation.

11. Report the observations and feedback about the simulation, analyze and interpret what happened, explore alternative ways of handling the situation, and clarify what was learned.

12. Rerun the simulation, trying out other people where appropriate; discuss what you think was learned, other possible approaches, and other ways of responding in the simulation.

HOW TO CONDUCT A "VISIONS OF POTENTIAL" OR "FUTURING" SESSION

A "visions of potentials" session may be used to help group members build goals, begin problem-solving activities, or share perceptions as a method of getting to know one another. The following list of procedures is suggested, but any of a variety of rearrangements or variations of subject matter can accomplish the same purposes.

- Discuss with the group the idea of examining the subject of their interest (school, community, political party, business venture) in a new way just to see what the group can come up with.

- For a warmup to the main task, suggest the folllowing: "Imagine your ideal spouse--list a few characteristics on paper. Next imagine an ideal job (something other than the main interest of the group) and list a few characteristics on paper."

- Lead the group through a short imaginary trip, such as: "Imagine it is _____ years from now (longer than one or two years), and you are hovering in a helicopter over your ideal community. You can see everything about it--what it looks like, how it operates, how people in it think and feel, what it accomplishes. It is your own community changed into everything you could want it to be. Spend a few minutes observing this ideal community in your mind; then jot down sentences about what you see, noting everything you can that helps to tell why it is your ideal."

- Group into trios; share your notes. Together, build a short list of ideal characteristics about which you all agree or which one person feels strongly are vital. Agree on the order of importance of these items and number them to indicate the order.

- Share the lists with the large group, either one at a time, with discussion or brainstroming. During this time, combine the lists.

- Use either the discussion or the list to lead into goal-setting or problem-solving activities. The list can be prioritized by the group in a number of ways, or the items can be assigned to categories and used as an idea list for work.

This is a simple exercise that can be used with any type of group on any topic. The materials required are pencils and paper and perhaps a blackboard or newsprint. It is easily conducted in one hour and can be comfortably done with good results in one-half hour if the lists have a limited number of items (three to five). It is sometimes helpful to build simple worksheets for the group to write on if barriers to the ideas will be listed along with the ideas themselves. This sort of form can also be modified. The attached sample was used with a group.

SAMPLE

A LOOK INTO THE FUTURE
(INDIVIDUAL)

1. "You have been gone from your community for a few years and are now returning. What changes would you hope to see in the Community? List them in the left column."

Changes (Your Ideals) (List in order of importance)	Obstacles To Changes
______ 1.	1.
______ 2.	2.
______ 3.	3.

SAMPLE

Your Ideals (List in order of importance)	Obstacles To Ideals
______ 4.	4.
______ 5.	5.

2. "Now, in the right-hand column, list the most serious obstacles that may have kept these ideals from occurring."

3. Form small groups and share 1 and 2.

4. Ask groups to report and record on newsprint - clarify if needed.

5. Prioritize list.

6. Problem solving methods such as Force Field Analysis can be used to begin examining these issues and advising a plan of action.

SAMPLE

IDEALS
(SMALL GROUP NO. ____)

List all individuals' ideals obstacles. Avoid duplications. Summarize the statements but be careful not to change the meaning. We do not want problems or solutions at this time.

Ideals (List in order of importance)	Obstacles to Ideals
____ 1.	1.
____ 2.	2.
____ 3.	3.

Ideals (List in order of importance)	Obstacles To Ideals
______ 4.	4.
______ 5.	5.

Now, through group agreement, prioritize your first three or more choices and mark them down.

IDEALS
(LARGE GROUP)

List all small group changes. Avoid duplication.

	Small Group Ideals	Priority
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		

	Small Group Ideals	Priority
9.		
10.		

Now prioritize, by group agreement, your first three or more choices and number them in the right-hand column. If necessary, ask for another sheet.

SAMPLE #2: USE OF "VISIONS OF POTENTIAL" EXERCISE
(modify for use with other groups)

November 2, 1972 Okanogan, Washington

OCCASION: Orientation to School Boards, CCP Dinner Meeting at Paul's Cafe

From NWREL: Adams, Jongeward
From ISD: Beamer, Ass't. B.J.
State Board Member!: Ollie May Johnson, Northport

All communities represented except Winthrop (conflict).

Preplanning with entire group: considered (1) formal presentation, (2) game and (3) involvement in real experience from CCP.

Involvement (3) was chosen.

[illegible]

PROCEDURE: Board members and superintendents asked to think of ideal spouse, ideal business, ideal orchard, etc., then think of ideal school in terms of what education could be!

Superintendents and board members formed groups in separate rooms and conducted parallel activities.

Each person listed as many ideas on paper as he or she could think of. Approximately 10 minutes.

Formed trios, avoiding their own board members.

Trios made common list of ideals, eliminated duplications.

Lists were charted on wall, eliminating duplications.

Items were numbered. Each person orally indicated his or her "number one" choice, which was tallied on the charts.

The top three were charted separately. Each person was orally rated on a three-point scale, which was on a wall chart. The tallies indicated #2 as the ideal that was not being met as well as the others in the individual schools of each member.

Individual lists of barriers to that ideal were generated.

Trios refined the lists and they were charted.

Superintendents lists of (1) ideals, (2) barriers were brought in and placed on wall beside board lists.

Results were summarized.

The purpose of the experience was then explained, leading to analysis of Community Change Process and its place in the Rural Futures Development. Stages of CCP were handed out and progress in Okanogan pinpointed in the first stage--Entry.

The next immediate steps were pointed out in their order of anticipated occurrence:

1. Superintendent would obtain ratings from each of his board members and him or herself as to readiness for CCP of the superintendent, the board, the staff and the community.

2. The Process Facilitator(s) would then sit down with each superintendent and board and compare own ratings made upon the basis of exploratory visits.

3. A preliminary, voluntary group of students, staff and community leaders would be set up by administration to organize and conduct opinion leader survey(s) for students, staff and community.

4. The board would develop, under Process Facilitator guidance, a criteria of mix and choose a School-Community Group based upon the criteria.

5. The SCG would be organized by the school board and administration with an immediate job of conducting a needs assessment.

HOW TO DO
EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF MEETINGS

Purposes

1. To influence planning during a workshop
2. To share information and identify gaps in it
3. To guide future planning

Theory

1. People continuously evaluate every meeting they attend. What they do not do, however, is evaluate systematically, using all the information available to find out how they are progressing and where improvements can be made.
2. Often, groups waste time and effort because all their members hesitate to offer or ask for information, believing themselves to be the only ones concerned.
3. Systematic evaluation at several points during a meeting can help the convener define better ways to reach goals and group members identify personal responsibility for what is happening.

Activities

1. Gathering information
    a. Categories of useful information
        1. Are we making progress toward our goals?
        2. Are we using all members' resources?
        3. Are we communicating clearly?
    b. Methods for obtaining information
        1. Questionnaire
        2. Inverview--e.g., debriefing or taking a survey
        3. Observation--e.g., describing behaviors and checking perceptions
2. Processing the information
    a. Summarize results
    b. Encourage each group member to answer three questions concerning each evaluation issue:
        1. Where are we?
        2. Where do I want us to be?
        3. What can I do to help us get there?
    c. Encourage people to share these ideas
    d. Encourage the group to reach agreements for smoother functioning. Groups are more effective if members have clear expectations of what kinds of behavior are expected and desired of them by others.

HOW TO WRITE GOAL AND PROBLEM STATEMENTS

As a preliminary, you might say "What we are about to do in this session could easily influence what this group will do for the next six months or even year. You may find it a bit frustrating, but it is important to keep to the task."

Reproduced copies of data should be distributed. Everyone can study the tabulations from the needs assessment questions which asked people to report the "things they would like to see happen in the community." This can be done together or in smaller groups. Examine the clusters of similar answers. These can be used for general headings, with the items under them being the ingredients of the group's goals...what they want to see happen.

After a few minutes of working in small groups, pass out the sheet showing sample criteria for writing a goal statement and some examples of community statements of goals. They may be helpful. (15-30 min.)

Group can share some of the results and read preliminary statements.

Now you might say, "We now have these goal statements. Very likely, we will want to return to them in the future and make some changes, but for the time, let's put them aside and work on another part of this activity. It is easier and more familiar to us because it deals with the problems...the reasons why these things aren't going on now...the barriers or obstacles that seem to prevent us from reaching our goals."

Again, in the same small groups, look at the tabulated data. The groups may review data (if any) about why the things they felt they would like to see happen in the community are not happening. Discuss the barriers or goals obstacles that are in the way. Opposite the general statements of goals listed previously, list all the barriers. Barriers can be found in data, or generated from knowledge of the situation. Several reasons why these "desired" things aren't happening should appear. These can be assembled into what can be called a problem statement. (15-30 min.)

Trios may wish to practice writing problem statements and discussing them. (15-20 min.)

Groups may then refine either goal or problem statements until they are reasonably pleased with them. These are very important pieces of work and will influence what the CG does during the next several months.

"HOW TOs" FOR TASK FORCE MEMBERS

As a member of a task force, you take on temporary responsibility for a particular task. The following list of ideas has been found useful in getting the job done well and on time. You may think of other items to add to this list. Decide together which are useful for your group.

1. Make sure you know what the task is. If there is no clear description or definition from the group that gave you the task, have each member of the task force jot down quickly on paper each one's idea of the task. Share these until all agree on a compromise definition.

2. Make sure you know when the task is to be completed.

3. Review the makeup of your team. Who will be affected by the topic or issue? Who is not represented? Decide who else you need to include to have contact with all community sentiments.

4. Set up ground rules for your work as a group: write a purpose statement (the definition you agreed on)

   Plan to review the effectiveness of your group at the end of its work. Now is the time to plan a feedback sheet to use then (see sample).

5. Lay out the outline of your task--list parts of the task, who will be responsible, when each part needs to be done, what resources or kinds of help are needed.

6. Review the size of your group--now that you see the job to be done, is your group big enough?

7. Think about persons or groups opposed to the task you have. Can you include a representative or plan a way to hear their point of view? Would including them in the task help them to understand it and you their point of view.

8. Ask for help from many sources while you do your task--perhaps brainstorm who could be a resource to you.

9. Report your progress part way through the task; check to see that you are on target.

10. Report your outcomes at the end of the task to the group that created your task force.

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Improving Skills in Face-to-Face Communication

This form is to help you think about how you communicate with others in face-to-face situations. You can use it to set your own personal goals for improvement by following four steps.

1. Read through the entire list marking each item to show whether you think you are doing all right .... should do it more often ...., or should do it less often. Check each item in the appropriate column.
2. If some goals that are not listed are more important to you than those on the list, write your additional goals on the blank lines.
3. Go back over the whole list and circle the three or four skills you believe would be most valuable for you to improve at this time.
4. With your group discuss which three or four items you selected. Do others agree with your priorities or do they think other skills are more important? Why?
5. On the basis of your own judgment, now that you have heard the opinions of the others, make a final selection of the skills you most wish to improve.

Expressing information, ideas, suggestions	Need to do it LESS	Doing all right	Need to do it MORE	
1. Being brief and concise...getting to the point				1
2. Being forceful and definite rather than hesitant and apologetic				2
3. Talking in specifics...giving examples, details				3
4. Talking in generalizations, principles, explanations				4
5.				5
6.				6
Expressing Feelings				
7. Letting others know when I do not understand something they have said				7
8. Letting others know when I like something they have said or done				8
9. Letting others know when I disagree with them				9
10. Letting others know when I think they have changed the subject or become irrelevant				10
11. Letting others know when I am getting irritated				11
12. Letting others know when I feel hurt, embarrassed or put down by something they have said or done				12
13.				13
14.				14

Understanding information, ideas and suggestions of others

		LESS	right	MORE	
15.	Listening to understand rather than preparing any next remark				15
16.	Helping others participate in the discussion				16
17.	Before agreeing or disagreeing, checking to make sure I do understand what others mean				17
18.	Summarizing points of disagreement and agreement				18
19.	Asking questions in ways that get more information than "yes" or "no"				19
20.					20
21.					21

Understanding and responding to others' feelings

		LESS	right	MORE	
22.	Checking out with others what I think they are feeling rather than assuming I know				22
23.	Responding to a person who is angry with me in such a way that I do not ignore his feelings				23
24.	Responding to a person whose feelings are hurt in such a way that I do not ignore his feelings				24
25.	Responding to a person who is expressing closeness and affection for me in such a way that I do not ignore his feelings				25
26.	Surveying a group to determine how much agreement exists (in making a group decision)				26
27.					27
28.					28

General

		LESS	right	MORE	
29.	Talking in group discussions				29
30.	Getting feedback...encouraging others to let me know how my actions affect them				30
31.	Being aware when I am trying to cope with my own feelings of discomfort rather than responding to the other person				31
32.	Being able to stand silence when with others				32
33.	Being able to stand tension and conflict				33
34.	Accepting help from others				34
35.	Offering help to others				35
36.	Yielding to others...giving in to others				36
37.	Standing up for myself				37
38.	Being protective of others				38
39.					39
40.					40

SAMPLE INFORMATION PACKET FOR SCHOOL BOARDS, COUNTY COMMISSIONERS, CITY COUNCILS, OTHERS

A COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT PROCESS

is Designed to Include

A board Representative Group

of Local People

in

Community

Planning and Decision Making

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THE COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT PROCESS BASIC PRINCIPALS AND ASSUMPTIONS:

1. Each individual has worth and dignity.
2. Good communities demand the participation of individuals in making decisions that directly affect them.
3. Helping citizens gain skills in problem-solving, decision-making and interpersonal communication will increase group productivity and achievement of goals.
4. Leaving skills with community leaders inspires confidence in own ability and lessens continuing dependence on outside help.
5. Getting community members involved and staying involved is the goal which will result in improved opportunities for the community.
6. Differences of opinions and conflicts do exist but can be dealt with constructively if open and honest communication is established.
7. Decision making shared among members of a community will improve the living environment and quality of community life.
8. Many local citizens are willing to serve the role of consultants to citizen groups as they study community problems.
9. Roles of government and elected officials can be reoriented to assist them to become facilitators and implementers of community changes that have been agreed upon by citizen groups.
10. Often decisions are made on an emotional rather than a factual base. Building awareness and providing skill training to citizens' groups can improve their decision-making abilities.

THE COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT PROCESS MODEL

CONSISTS OF THE FOLLOWING STAGES:

1. The Community Seeks Help (Entry)
2. Identification and Analysis of Needs and Problems
3. Searching for Alternatives
4. Planning for Action
5. Implementing the Plan
6. Evaluating the Plan

Complete implementation of the Model in a Community requires approximately one year to eighteen months.

STEP 1

THE COMMUNITY SEEKS HELP (PREPARATION FOR ENTRY)

INITIAL CONTACT WITH COMMUNITY OFFICIALS

DESCRIPTION OF MODEL

EXPLANATION OF COMMITMENTS REQUIRED

1. Letter requesting assistance in implementing CIP
2. Financial commitment
3. Commitment of local officials to philosophy of CIP--including necessary time commitment.
4. An A-V documentation of the present community status and gathering of other agreed upon baseline data. (optional)

STEP 2

IDENTIFYING AND ANALYZING NEEDS AND PROBLEMS

PROCEDURE:

1. A small temporary community group is formed who (a) create the community mix criteria and (b) determine selection procedures for obtaining a broadly representative group.

2. A permanent Community Improvement Group is formed who (a) engage in processes that gather opinions and attitudes from members of the community, (b) establishes priority goals for community improvement, and (c) develops plans and strategies for working on these priorities and keeping the whole community involved.

STEP 2

OUTCOMES:

1. A group of citizens become increasingly aware of community goals and problems because they have participated in the needs assessment.

2. A preliminary document is prepared that summarizes goals of the community.

3. A representative group of community leaders are formed who will be involved in later activities.

4. A list of community goals.

STEP 3

SEARCHING FOR ALTERNATIVES

PROCEDURES:

1. The Community Group with its Task Force Teams (TFT) searches available literature, community resources and other information sources for all needed data during study of how to attain the community goals.

2. Representatives from the Community Group may make site visits to innovative community programs and report its findings to the total group.

3. The Community Group develops a list of alternative programs or innovations that hold promise for improving their own community.

4. The Community Group determines priority of these for suggested implementation into the community and recommends that action be taken.

STEP 3

OUTCOMES:

1. List of alternative plans for community improvement.
2. Written goals and objectives for the community.
3. An informal communications network.
4. Recommendations for improving the community.

STEP 4

PLANNING FOR ACTION

PROCEDURES:

1. Subcommittees or task forces develop preliminary plans for installing new ideas or programs.

2. The Community Group uses informal network to obtain reaction to these plans.

3. Plans for installation are completed including how to evaluate.

4. The Community Group works with community on understanding new programs

5. The Community Group presents plans for implementation and evaluation of new programs to local governing officials to gain their approval.

STEP 4

OUTCOMES:

1. Plan for community improvement, complete with implementation and evaluation suggestions, which has been tested against people in the larger community.

2. Decision about all or parts of the plan by local governing officials.

STEP 5

IMPLEMENTING THE PLAN

PROCEDURE:

1. The plan(s) recommended by the Community Group to local officials and approved by them are scheduled for installation.
2. New ideas not requiring new materials and/or outside assistance are implemented as rapidly as possible.
3. New ideas requiring new materials/equipment facilities put into action as resources allow.
4. Schedule for evaluative data collection is started.
5. The Community Group monitors progress of each idea or new program.
6. The Community Group responds to needs arising from new program(s).

STEP 5

OUTCOMES:

1. New programs functioning in community.
2. Support for these new programs from Community Group, community and consultants where needed.
3. Formative evaluation data about each new program.

STEP 6

EVALUATION

PROCEDURE:

1. The Community Group members are taught appropriate skills needed to determine effectiveness of new programs.
2. The Community Group members participate in gathering information and summative data needed to assess the new programs.
3. The Community Group members will tabulate and analyze data and draw up recommendations.
4. The Community Group will consider new problems and/or new ideas for discussion and/or implementation.
5. The Community Group members determine indicators of community, social and educational growth.
6. The Community Group will review its own operation to determine what alterations, if any, are needed to increase its effectiveness.
7. The Community Group will report to local governing officials and the community about the progress of the new programs.
8. The Community Group will establish plan of operation for new year.

STEP 6

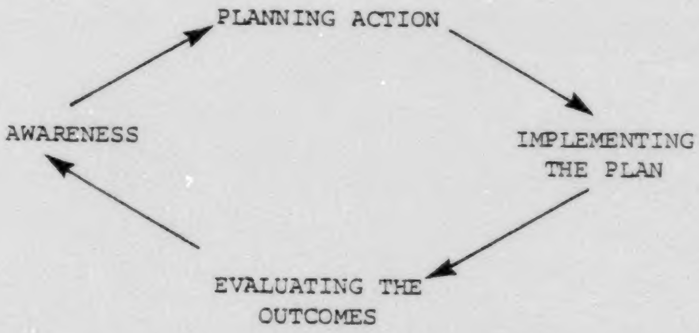
OUTCOMES:

1. Report to local officials on new programs.
2. Decisions about additional training needs in the community.
3. Decisions about recycling of Improvement process.

INTRODUCTION TO COLLEGIAL GROUPS AS A SUPPORT FOR LEADERSHIP ROLE CHANGE

County and City administrators may rightly feel overwhelmed at the prospect of the massive organizational role change the PRI Process appears to entail.

The PRI Process not only outlines some of the generic changes for communities, but it provides for means to change. One of these means, designed for individual leaders who have accepted the challenge of the process is a model for deliberate, planned change--a four-step procedure that looks like this:



Individual Community leaders will find this model useful in designing and carrying out role-related behavior changes. Over the next year or more, leaders will design their own goals and objectives for role change, plan how to achieve these changes, describe any indications of progress and design feedback mechanisms to monitor progress.

The responsibility for role change belongs to individual leaders. Only they can make the commitments, take the risks, and solve the problems related to their own change of behavior. However, they can derive considerable support by meeting with a group of their colleagues.

Teams of colleagues can help individuals:

- gain support for their self- and community-improvement projects
- learn about community- and self-improvement ideas that "work"
- obtain help on self-assessment processes and results
- gain personal satisfaction in being part of a challenging program that is recognized in the district as performing an important leadership function
- gain unity and direction for district leadership

The distinctive features of such a collegial team approach are these:

- They occur in a job-related situation.
- They represent a process that a community employs to provide its leaders with efficient and economical lifelong learning and change opportunities.

- The learning experiences are goal oriented and systematic, rather than incidental, unrelated, and lacking in context.
- Each participating community leader determines his or her own growth and change program. Still, he or she usually participates with others involved in similar activities. The collegial teams are from one community, but can also cross local community lines.
- The seminars provide for learning with consultants and other community leaders. This optimizes sharing, motivation, and feedback, along with highly individualized activities.
- By associating leadership growth with actual community improvement projects, both organizational and leadership capabilities improve.*

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*This material is adapted from the CFK, Ltd. Occasional Paper "Individuali Administrator Continuing Education," Fall, 1973, p. 64.

KEEPING THE COMMUNICATION OPEN

As a CG works to build plans for community improvement, sharing of the experience all along the way will help to make the final plan as useful as possible, and will help to educate all those concerned about the various aspects of any new programs being considered.

This is a time for lots of contact. The task force teams (TFTs) working on a task should talk not just to each other, but to everyone they can. The following sharing should be part of their work.

- Use the informal communication network to reach into every segment of the community. This may be done by the TFT, but should be planned at the CG level to avoid overtaxing the system.
- Incorporate feedback from the total community into the plans - in other words, make the communication real by using it = be influenced as well as influencing others.
- TFT report progress regularly to the CG Chairman.
- Invite especially interested groups to a TFT meeting, or attend their meeting to share information.
- Report completed plans to CG, verbally as well as in writing.

LETTER TO COMMUNITY GROUP NOMINEE

Dear _________________:

The Spring Valley Community is initiating a process for Community improvement. A representative group of people from the entire community is needed.

You are a nominee to that group. You have been nominated by others as a person who can represent them and who is interested in community improvement.

The first meeting of the Community Group will be on Tuesday, October 16, in the high school cafeteria.

Please return the enclosed form as soon as possible.

We hope you will be able to take part.

Yours,

SAMPLE ENCLOSURE FOR LETTER TO CG NOMINEE

(Date)

____________________, Mayor
Spring Valley Office of Mayor
429 Main Street
Spring Valley, Washington

1. _______________Yes, I am willing to serve as a member of the proposed Community Group.

   _______________No, I am unavailable to serve.

2. _______________Yes, I can attend the first meeting of the CG.

   _______________No, I am not available on that date.

(Signed)

____

List of Potential Group Competencies or Skills

1. Preparing to help groups and individuals engage in projects or activities:
    a. set goals for an activity
    b. select tactics likely to bring about achievement of desired outcomes
    c. establish measurable criteria of learning
    d. locate available resources
    e. determine whether existing materials need to be adapted
    f. plan techniques to assess effectiveness of activities
2. Helping groups accomplish tasks:
    a. help groups surface and clarify problems or needs
    b. use systematic techniques to help a group establish goals and objectives
    c. help a group identify obstacles to goal achievement
    d. learn a technique to help a group
        1. identify criteria for a successful solution to a problem
        2. locate and assess alternative solutions
        3. choose a preferred solution
        4. plan and implement a solution
        5. assess the effect of a solution
        6. modify a solution
    e. assist a group to:
        1. design, construct and administer questionnaires, surveys and instruments
        2. process and analyze data
        3. reporting data orally and in writing to different audiences
        4. translate findings into action and to assess consequences of action
3. Helping groups function properly
    a. Using group maintenance techniques e.g.
        1. recognize and develop its identity
        2. communicate effectively
        3. manage conflicts and hostility
        4. diagnose group needs; how and when to intervene; and influence agenda building
        5. use methods to locate and allocate resources
    b. Establishing group operating norms e.g.
        1. use a method of assisting a group establish policies regarding membership, organization and operating procedures

    2. assist a group to become self-reliant
    3. to form agreements about roles
    4. to identify and describe ways in which decisions are made in a group

4. Helping groups collaborate e.g.

   a. Diagnostic skills
      1. locate and describe formal and informal communication networks
      2. use knowledge about group functioning to assist groups collaborate
   b. Build awareness for need to collaborate
      1. assess extent to which proposed actions affect other groups
      2. examine alternative ways in which linkages to other groups can be made
   c. Building commitment among groups:
      1. use techniques to initiate collaboration
      2. help groups make and keep commitments
      3. recognize when they have common goals
      4. recognize need for shared resources

5. Help groups build productive relationships

   a. know how to read basic non verbal messages
   b. know and be able to use techniques for discovering cultural norms of the group
   c. know and be able to use team building techniques
   d. feel at ease with a wide variety of persons
   e. recognize and deal with situations when work is being impeded

6. Help groups attend to organizational matters

   a. know how to collaborate on agendas
   b. solicit feedback on organization and content of plans
   c. understand logistics of meetings - who to be involved, setting and time
   d. use a systematic technique for making and keeping commitments
   e. know and use techniques of negotiating commitments needed from others
   f. use techniques for planning and using time

MAJOR COMPONENTS OF A PROPOSAL

Component	Question to be answered
I. Introduction	
A. Statement of the problem:	What needs to be done and why?
B. Review of earlier work by self, others:	What has been done that is relevant? What did we learn from that work? What will we do differently
C. Overview:	What do we plan to do? (Brief statement--"we plan to build a radio station")
D. Objectives:	What are the specific goals? What indicators will be acceptable for showing that these objectives have been reached?
II. Procedures	
A. Design	What is the project plan? (Detailed, step-by-step description)
B. Target Population	Who will be affected? How are they selected (if selected)?
C. Measurement and Data	What questions need to be answered? What data will be collected? How?
D. Analysis and Evaluation	How will data by analyzed and evaluated? When? By whom? How will results be used?
E. Time Schedule	How much time will be needed for each portion of the project? What decision points occur, and when? When will planning and report writing occur?
III. Product and Use	What do you expect the results of the project to be? What contribution will be made? How will the target population be affected? What reports will emerge, to whom? How will the results be made available to others?
IV. Personnel and Facilities	Who will do the project? Where? Why are they the right persons to do it? What assistance will they need?
V. Budget	What will each part of the project cost? List every item in plan which requires time, space, equipment, supplies, service or people.

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MEETING/WORKSHOP ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT

What were the critical incidents of this session?

What do you perceive as the strengths of this meeting/workshop?

What do you perceive as the weaknesses of this meeting/workshop?

What changes do you feel would have made the meeting/workshop more effective?

NEEDS ASSESSMENT APPROACHES

Goals and Barriers

1. Identify Goals
2. Identify Barriers
3. Establish Priority
4. Write Goal/Needs Statements

Harvest of Concerns

1. Identify Concerns
2. Establish Priority
3. Translate Concerns Into Needs
4. Relate Needs To Goals

Discrepancy

1. Identify "What Ought To Be"
2. Identify "What Is"
3. Find Differences
4. Establish Priority
5. Translate Differences Into Needs Statements
6. Relate Needs To Goals

- Task Forces Begin Searching for Alternatives
- Task Forces Conduct a Search and Develop a Report for the SCG
- The SCG Studies, Discusses, Modifies, and Agrees on the Report
- The SCG Presents the Report to the School Board for Discussion, Suggestions, and Approval

NEEDS ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES — INSTRUMENT #1

1. The CG may develop a list of goals for their community. (Image of Potential exercise.) For each of these goals, list the three main obstacles that block them. Prioritize both the goals and the barriers for each goal.

2. Print the list of goals showing what the CG considers to be (potential) obstacles (according to their adjudged priority) opposite each one. Leave space for community person to check degree of agreement (see form).

3. Use one of the following methods:

   a. Have each CG community person circulate the goal/obstacle list among five to ten friends. Tabulate the results.

   b. Mail goal/obstacle list to community like a regular questionnaire. Arrange to pick up or ask people to mail them back. Tabulate.

   c. Have CG circulate goal/obstacle list widely in community through clubs, organizations, churches, stores, etc. Tabulate as above (may not reach full range of views).

   d. Print goals/barriers lists in local paper, include address to mail returns to (often low rate of response).

   e. Other

4. CG analyzes results, establishes priority among goals and obstacles within goals and decides which one(s) it will begin to work on.

The Community Developer explains to CG the need to learn what the larger community believes to be the major areas in need of community improvement. The Community Developer suggests that past experience has shown that three or four questions can be asked to provide reasonable assurance that important areas are being attacked. A suggested list of questions is provided to the CG as follows:

1. What do you like about our community? (Name two or three things.)

   ____

   ____

   ____

2. Suggest two or three goals you would like to see the community work toward to improve its quality of life.

   ____

   ____

   ____

3. Name the obstacles or barriers that prevent our community from realizing these goals.

   ____

   ____

   ____

4. List one or two things you would like to see begun immediately that you think would improve our community.

   ____

   ____

   ____

Write these questions in language the group decides upon. Test the set of questions on a few people, organize the resulting data. This will help the group to understand the kind of information this type of question tends to collect.

A variation of this procedure which may be used is as follows.

1. Use a typical list of community improvement goals or a list outlining state goals. Use these lists to aid the CG to develop their own set of goals for their own community.

2. Submit them to community members to determine extent of agreement with them (use informal network idea; draw a sample or survey the entire community).

3. For the top three, have them suggest one or two major barriers which prevent these goals from being reached.

4. Have CG tabulate results.

5. CG analyzes results and agrees on which of the goals and barriers it wishes to begin work on.

6. Public results for the whole community.

NEW PROGRAM CHECKLIST

This checklist is intended for use by a task force to aid in preparing their recommendations to the CG on a new program and for later use by the CG to review those plans before presentation to the local board/group.

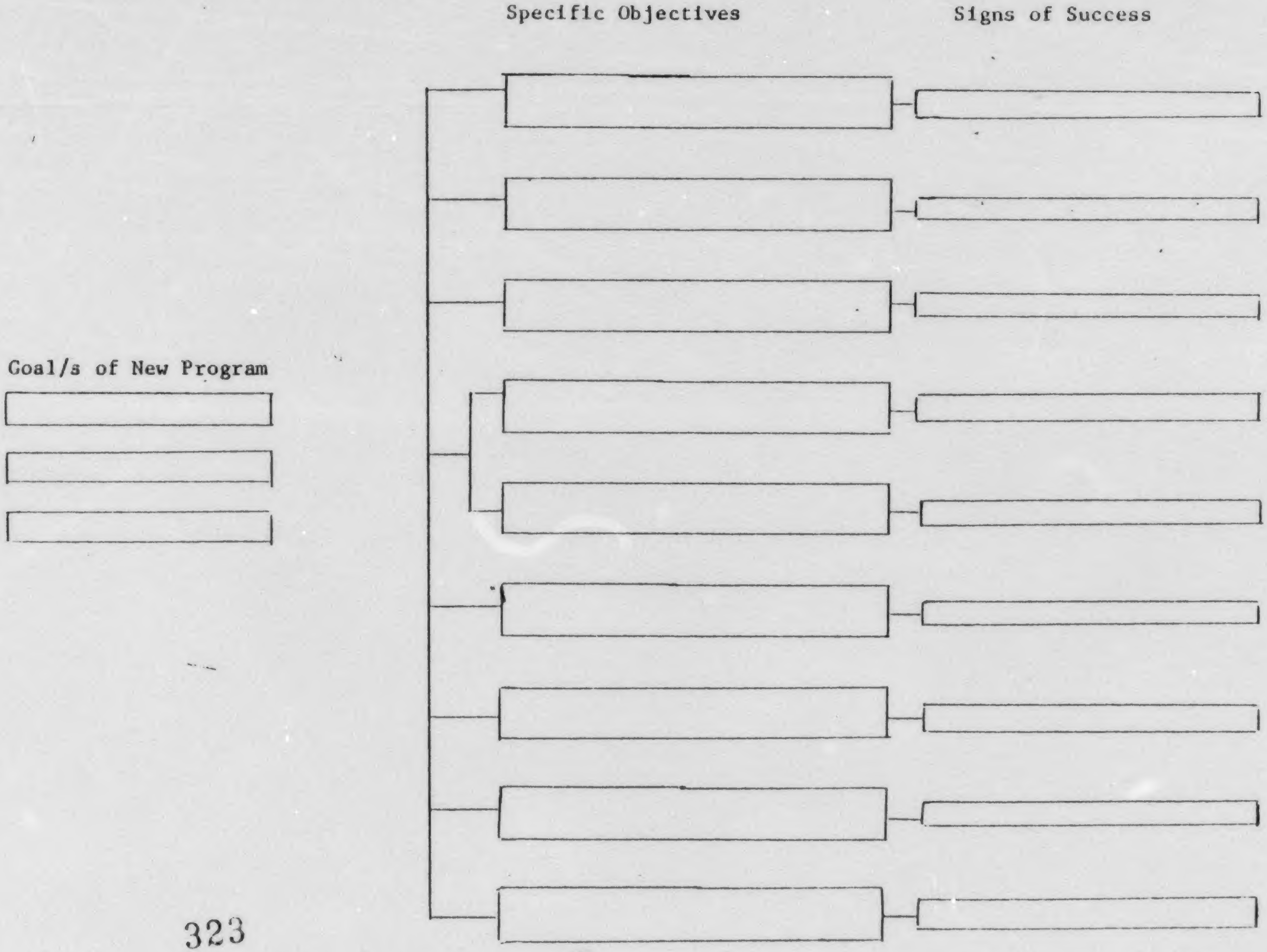
Does the proposed innovation or change:

1. Contribute to the goals of the community? How?
2. Offer at least a partial solution to one of the identified priority community needs? In what way?
3. Have a well-developed installation and evaluation plan which includes
    a. clearly defined goals and objectives
    b. identified signs of success or failure
    c. additional training needed
    d. a continuing program of communication
    e. outside personnel to be used
    f. materials and equipment needed
    g. added costs
    h. a time schedule for starting and collecting data for evaluation, including decision points for changes
    i. a stated trial period for the new program
4. Provide arrangements for local and outside visitors?
5. Identify local and outside resources available for help as the program becomes operational?

NEW PROGRAM PLANNING WORKSHEET #1

Community

Name of New Program


Specific Objectives
Signs of Success
Goal/s of New Program

NEW PROGRAM PLANNING WORKSHEET #2

What information is needed to know if expected signs of success has been attained?	How will this information be collected?	Who will be responsible for collecting it?	When will it be collected?	Who needs it?

NOTES ON INTRODUCING TRAINING INTO CG ACTIVITIES

Introduction of training into Community Group activities will be done differently by every Facilitator. However it is done, the following ideas are generally helpful.

- Use the word "training" sparingly. One way is to make a statement such as the following:

  "There are a few tricks we have learned that save many problems. I will share these with the group--it will only take a short time, and I feel that it will really help you with this task."

- Keep activities specific: when the group is working with data, don't have other things going on too.
- Keep explanations short and precise.
- Make the work fun if possible and be optimistic about the task being worthwhile and contributing to the main job.
- Have local people help with skill training whenever possible.
- When training is necessary, work at being a "good teacher"--one whose enthusiasm, energy and imagination infect the group and whose reinforcement is positive, generous and honest.

NOTES ON MAKING A FIRST VISIT TO A COMMUNITY

Before Before:

Become a sensitive observer of people, events, agencies and the results of their interactions.

Before You Go:

Select those items that are appropriate for you and for the community you plan to visit.

1. Collect information about community; what are the names of city officials, school superintendent and other influential people? What are the available communications (newspapers, radio)? Are census data/industrial surveys available?

2. Consider having a second person make the initial visit with you to help confirm and/or deny observations made.

3. Prepare the local group for your visit using phone calls, letters, intermediary endorsements that may help legitimize your visit. And what are the issues? Get names of people to visit.

4. Why are you going? Set an agenda for yourself: How long do you plan to stay? What are you planning to do there?

5. Know where to get information. Expected hot spots might be: local cafe, bar, sheriff's office, newspaper, barber shops, county court house, native groups, migrant office and labor office.

6. Decide what is appropriate to wear and how to travel. (Mod clothes, long hair, sporty car may be questionable.)

7. Ask your colleagues about the community you plan to visit; maybe it is their home town!

8. Buy a local newspaper for a week prior to your visit. See what local issues and concerns are!

When You Are There:

1. First visit your contact person/agency--explain why you are there. (Be honest--ask who else you should see.)

2. Buy a local community newspaper or high school paper.

3. Become familiar with the community: drive around, walk around.

4. Listen, listen to people (be patient).

5. Carry recurrent topics over to people you talk with to confirm importance of issues and concerns. (Use with care--don't start rumors!)

6. Your behavior is critical (go slowly, quietly).

7. Recount information activities (debrief yourself); after the day is over, write down your impressions.

8. Be flexible in your schedule; follow up any good leads you get.

9. Be inquisitive (sometimes naive) especially about local events of which townspeople may be proud.

10. Accept invitations carefully. Remember, your purpose is to make wise use of the limited time available.

11. These topics have been found to be useful to promote voluntary responses from most people in a positive way:

    - the fact that you and your organization are being considered for possible work with the community and you are interested in knowing about it

    - history of the community

    - recent accomplishments or outstanding events

    - services available

    - local issues and problems

Back Home:

1. Summarize your visit by reviewing all your activities. Write notes about what you did, heard, thought.

2. Review your Community Profile to see how much more information you now have. What did you miss?

3. Write down any ideas, thoughts and/or recommendations that seem to be especially important for followup activities (letters or visits).

4. Remeber that thank you letters to people who have been especially helpful are often important. Keep them brief and friendly.

OBTAINING GROUP FEEDBACK

The term "feedback" usually describes a person-to-person or person-to-group exchange. However, the term also refers to obtaining a group's collective opinion of a project.

Feedback can be helpful to Program Associates, CGs, and task forces. Some ways to obtain feedback are as follows:

- In a role playing situation, the PA "models" ways to give and receive feedback. This modeling can take place during the first group session. In doing this, it is important to negotiate the level of openness expected in interpersonal relationships. In addition, the PA's should be continuously tested. Openness and trust develop gradually, so it is important not to express too much feeling at the outset.
- Toward the end of a session, the PA encourages the group to review its performance. Then a staff member and a community member decide on a method of providing feedback. This smaller group also prepares feedback for the end of the session.
- The PA appoints someone to monitor the session. This person keeps the group's attention focused on its task, reminds its members of the time they are spending on issues, and suggests ways to improve the next meeting.
- The PA develops a checklist of appropriate performance behaviors to be used by the group at the end of a session.

OPINION LEADER CRITERIA AND CRITERIA OF MIX
-SAMPLE-

Brewster, Washington

Definitions of opinion leader:

1. Somone who can listen to several points of view and then, unbiased by any group, relate them to the community
2. Someone who is well-informed about school needs and goals and has an open mind and a broad viewpoint
3. Someone who inspires confidence
4. Someone who is willing to be involved, to listen and to evaluate--and then to pass on information for the betterment of the school and the community

Criteria of Mix

orchardists
shed workers
laborers
downtown merchants
medical people
clergy
young marrieds
senior citizens
old timers
newcomers
bridal club
chamber of commerce
grange
kiwanis
garden club
triange club
civic league
women's church groups
farmers
cattlemen
others (which could be added)
dam workers
housewives
Indians

OPINION LEADER SURVEY

-SAMPLE-

Location____ Date__________________

Using the following guidelines, please list three persons in the community who you think would be opinion leaders.

1. They have demonstrated an interest in the community.
2. They have done something new or different in their line of work.
3. They are the kinds of persons you would listen to, trust and believe.

First Choice____

Second Choice____

Third Choice____

PERSONAL STYLE IN THE ORGANIZATION

Formal	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Informal
Personal	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Impersonal
Masked Feelings	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Open Feelings
Competitive	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Collaborative
Judgmental	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Not judgmental
Democratic	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Authoritative
Opinionated	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Accepting
Patient	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Impatient
Warm	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Cold
Uncaring	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Caring

This type of instrument has several possible uses. For example:

- Community leaders can rate themselves on the dimensions suggested and ask their staffs to rate them. They can then compare the two ratings to see how consistent everyone's views are.
- According to the dimensions suggested, community leaders can be rated by other staff members in two ways: "as they see them now" and "as they would like to see them."

In each case, it is the differences in ratings that provide community leaders with information relating to role changes.

PLANNING GROUP SESSIONS

A common trait of successful group sessions is methodical planning. What elements of planning assure top results? This paper suggests a planning procedure which may be used for both information sessions and work/study sessions. The procedure includes the following steps:

Defining the session's purpose

Defining the audience you will be working with

Matching the purpose and audience to the content of the session

Matching the purpose, audience, and content to procedures for conducting the session

Evaluating your plan

The remainder of this paper will look at each of these steps in more detail.

Defining the Session's Purpose

To help you define the purpose of a group session, try this simple exercise:

- Put down, in general terms, the purpose of the session.
- Then, set down the actions you want to see people take after the session is concluded.

Repeat this procedure until you are happy with the results. Ask others to help you. Your group session will have a clear focus when you know what you want it to achieve and what kinds of actions or behaviors you want to elicit from participants.

Defining the Audience You Will Be Working With

What audience is your group session aimed at? What do members of your audience already know about the PRI Process? What do they expect? How interested or disinterested are they? Are they supportive or hostile? Do they want to change or stay the same? What do they want to know? What is relevant to them? Keep asking yourself questions until you feel comfortable with the definition of the audience you will be working with.

Planning the Session's Content

Go back and take a good look at your purpose and audience. Is your intent to inform on a general level or to promote more indepth learning?

If your purpose is to inform, here are some useful clues:

1. Make the content simple. Speak about one thing at a time in ways people will readily understand. Raise one issue, discuss it, solve it and move on to the next. Use words everyone knows and develop the content in an uncluttered and progressive fashion.

2. Make the content concrete. Avoid abstract and generalized references. Talk about people doing things. Use action words. Go to your audience, do not make them come to you.

3. Make the session as short as possible. In developing the content, the idea is not to tell it all, but to tell all that is necessary. To know what your audience is seeking and will tolerate helps you know when your job is done. Do not wait for them to hit you on the head with a club before you stop. Set a time limit if necessary.

If your intent is to promote indepth learning, your methods will be different. You will no doubt find it necessary to employ abstractions and theoretical concepts. You will want to show the relationship between concepts and between theory and practice. To do this you may need to introduce new words.

You will want members of your audience to come to you more as they seek and request information. You do not want to rush them and will often find yourself waiting for them. You will also want to provide for evaluation--evaluation of new skills, knowledge, and attitudes and evaluation of the session itself. As you can see, the content of information sessions and work/study sessions takes different shapes, thus requiring different methods of presentation.

Planning How To Present Content

Taking into account the purposes, audience, and content of the session, it is now time to plan how to present the content. As you plan, remember that each group is unique, as are the individuals that comprise it. Remember, too, that procedures are important. A procedure which is appropriate for one group might be ill-suited to another group. In fact, procedures that work well with one group at one time might not work with the same group at another time. The proper selection and use of procedures can mean the difference between an ineffective session and one that achieves its goals in a stimulating way. The following suggestions might help you determine the appropriateness of specific procedures:

1. Determine what kind of people you are working with. Look at needs, interests, background, culture, extent of knowledge, age, and physical condition; then match these considerations to appropriate procedures.

2. Know the size of the group. Certain procedures work better with large groups, others with small groups.

3. Consider the physical environment. The setting should be appropriate for those involved. Some procedures require specific physical arrangements such as a particular arrangement of chairs, a blackboard, or small meeting rooms.

4. Determine what assistance you will need. Some procedures require that someone possess specific skills such as leadership or writing skills. Some procedures require specific equipment such as movie, slide, or overhead projectors.

5. Consider the characteristics of procedures themselves. Review the appropriate uses of a procedure, its advantages and limitations, its pattern of communication, and match this information with your purposes, audience, and content.

The following are some examples of procedures you may wish to employ when conducting information sessions:

- a speech
- a demonstration
- a group discussion
- an interview (a presentation before an audience in which a resource person responds to systematic questioning)
- a panel discussion
- an audience reaction team (people planted in the audience to interrupt a speaker and seek clarification on points)
- a question and answer period

When planning work/study sessions to cover learning in more depth you might wish to consider some of the following procedures:

1. all of those listed above for information sessions
2. a committee appointed or elected to perform a task that cannot be done efficiently by the whole group
3. field trips, in which a group visits places or things of interest for firsthand observation and study
4. role-playing--acting out a situation, condition, or circumstance by selected members of a group
5. buzz sessions in which several small groups meet simultaneously to discuss a topic or perform a task

6. brainstorming--a spontaneous outpouring of ideas pertinent to an area of interest or a particular need

7. a seminar led by consultants (recognized authorities)

8. a symposium--a series of related speeches (2-5) by people qualified to speak on different phases of the same topic or closely related topics

These procedures take place in certain contexts or settings. When planning work/study sessions, there are different ways of approaching them. Here are a few of the common ones:

1. Base the session on the expressed interests and needs of participants. Emphasize individual proficiency and understanding and encourage participants to work out a program of personal study.

2. Place emphasis on diagnosing and analyzing problems and seeking solutions to them. Present the group with life-like situations (simulations) in order to provide practice for actual situations.

3. Emphasize data-based instruction. Present an organized body of knowledge to learners and raise issues for their consideration.

In addition to the above procedures, you may wish to consider the following aids to planning:

1. all of those listed above for information sessions

2. printed materials such as books, journals, and information briefs

3. annotated reading lists

4. case studies or histories

Evaluating and Restructuring the Plan

Evaluation, as the term is used here, is concerned with judging the extent to which a plan is appropriate and well conceived. In one sense of the word, you will be evaluating throughout the planning process--you will continually make judgments about the worth of a session's purpose and the viability of the procedures employed in it. You will also want to judge the plan's worth after you have prepared it. Start this second evaluation process by setting the plan aside for awhile and then try to approach it as a new reader. Next, show your plan to others--other process facilitators, trainers, or representatives of the group the plan is intended for. Ask for their impressions, suggested improvements, additions, and deletions. Listen carefully to these comments and, if necessary, give up your first approach when its effectiveness is questioned. In the evaluation process, don't look only for what is wrong--find out what you did well too. Both negative and positive information are useful for future planning.

Points To Remember:

- Define the purpose of the session to your satisfaction and the satisfaction of others.
- Know exactly who the session is for. What kind of audience will you meet when you show up for the session? What will these people expect from you?
- Make the content of the session appropriate to your purpose and audience. Find out what people want to know. Consider their needs, interests, and backgrounds.
- Carefully select the procedures you use. It may mean the difference between success and failure.
- Ask others to help you plan and evaluate the session. It is a good way to assure success.

PREPARING FOR A MEETING

Participants in meetings should feel that the time they have spent has been worthwhile. Although no one can guarantee that all meetings will be regarded as meaningful, the chairperson or convener can take some steps to make them as effective as possible by carefully arranging for facilities and materials or by asking another person to make those arrangements.

The checklist presented below can be used by any person who assumes this responsibility.

Item	Arrangement Completed (✓)
1. Space	______
a. The room is large enough that several small groups can meet simultaneously.	
b. The room can accommodate a single large group.	
c. The walls can be used to post newsprint.	
d. Both temperature and ventilation can be controlled.	
2. Access	______
a. Keys are available to all space that will be used.	
b. Restrooms are accessible.	
c. A phone is available.	
d. Duplicating equipment is available, if desired.	
3. Furniture	______
a. Tables and chairs are plentiful.	
b. Furniture can be moved around freely.	
c. Ash trays are available.	

Item (Continued) Arrangement Completed (✓)

4. Materials ______

    a. Enough easels and chalkboards are available for writing.

    b. An overhead projector or audio/video tape recorder is available, if desired.

    c. Newsprint, markers, and masking tape are ready.

    d. Clipboards, paper, pencils, and pens are supplied.

    e. Plenty of chalk is handy.

5. Refreshments ______

    a. Food and drink is prepared.

    b. Napkins, cups, and paper plates are on hand.

Problem Solving: Discussion of a Six Step Process

Pupose of Discussion - The purpose of this discussion is to introduce you to problem solving procedures which can be used to give direction to extended investigations where the objective is to find the best possible solutions for problems.

Problem Solving Procedures. A problem may be thought of as a "felt need." A felt need may be either, (a) an evil we want to eliminate or avoid or (b) a positive advantage we would like to gain. Sometimes problems are in the future; that is, we predict something is going to happen we do not like and plan to avoid it or keep it from happening.

If you have a problem as defined here, you face a situation in which you must make a choice among alternate courses of action available for potentially solving your problem. Your challenge is to discover or invent that solution which will best solve the problem and at the same time bring about the least possible disadvantages.

Getting an Overview of the Problem Area. If a problem is at all complex and the investigator does not have much information on it, the first move should be to get an overview of the problem area. This calls for general investigation. It involves: (1) introspection in which you ask yourself what you already know about the problem and its possible causes; (2) compiling a tentative bibliography to determine where you are likely to be able to find the information you need; and (3) doing some initial research in the form of general reading in order to get insight into the nature of the problem and an overview of the problem area. This reading may be supplemented by direct observation where possible, and by interviews with an expert or two. It may include gaining a chronological overview of the history of the problem, which may help to provide insight into the nature of the problem and its causes, and which may reveal solutions that have been tried or proposed in the past.

Phrasing the Problem Question. After some inital study, you need to attempt to phrase a problem question in clear and precise terms. Problem questions should be phrased in order to leave the door open to all possible solutions.

Wrong: "Should I buy a car for transportation this school year?"
Right: "What kind of transportation should I use during this school year?"

You should not phrase your problem question (1) so as to include two problems, even if they are closely related; (2) so as to refer to causes; (3) in terms of a problem of persuasion; (4) as a question of information; or (5) in vague and ambiguous terms.

Narrowing the Problem. Along with phrasing your problem question, it may be necessary to also narrow your problem. In part this is a practical matter related to the time and resources you have available.

Narrowing can be accomplished in three ways:

1. Limit your study to deciding on either a short-range or a long-range solution. Short-range solutions provide for immediate emergencies, while long range ones promise more permanent solutions.

2. Limit yourself to one aspect of the problem. Instead of studying, "What should be done about the problem of divorces in this country," study, "what should be done about the divorces among people who marry early?"

3. Treat one major causal factor of the problem. Instead of studying, "What should be done about the low standard of living in Country X, "study, "What can be done to raise the literacy of the people in Country X?", assuming illiteracy is one of the causal factors of the low standard of living.

Gathering and Recording Information. After your initial investigation you will need to gather as much reliable data as you can regarding your problem. Set up your card file (use 4 x 8 cards) in sections which parallel key steps in the problem-solving sequence which will be discussed later.

I. Orientation. (Definitions of key terms, history of the problem, etc.)
II. Description of the Problem. Examples, extent, seriousness.)
III. Causes of the Problem. (Proximate, underlying.)
IV. Criteria. (Including justification.)
V. Solutions. (Advantages, disadvantages.)

As you come across important information related to any of these aspects, record it accurately on a file card and file under the appropriate heading. Put only "one" item -- quotation of a single opinion, a related group of numberical data, etc., -- on a card.

The Problem-Solving Sequence. Following is a discussion of six steps to help guide problem-solving investigations. These steps are as follows:

1. Describe the problem.
2. Dig out the causes of the problem.
3. Discover all possible solutions.
4. Decree criteria for evaluating solutions.
5. Determine the advantages and disadvantages of each solution.
6. Decide on the best solution.

Each of these steps needs to be taken up in turn and studied systematically. Of course, you may need to go back and reconsider your thinking on some step if you uncover new evidence or think of new implications which may modify your thinking on a step previously studied.

Step 1. Describe the Problem. In describing the problem you are attempting to arrive at a full understanding of its nature, extent, and seriousness. You should (a) study concrete examples of it, (b) gather numerical data or instances in brief example form to determine how widespread it is, (c) reason whether or not it may become worse

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in the future, and (d) decide just how serious it is as determined by the values you hold.

o Step 2. Dig out the causes of the problem. In order to solve a Problem we need to get at the causal factors which have brought it about and are continuing to operate to keep the problem in existence. Only if we know the causal factors can we eliminate or circumvent one or more of them and so solve the problem.

Proximate causal factors are ones which permit or encourage events and conditions to come into existence, while underlying factors might be termed the "real" causes. Dim street lights may be a proximate cause of crime, while underlying causal factors may be a variety of socio-economic factors. Proximate causes may be related to short-range solutions. If we do not know enough about the underlying causes of a problem or if we cannot control them, we may have to rely on short-range solutions.

Beware of superficial analysis of causes. If we say that automobile accidents are largley due to "carelessness," this is superficial analysis, for the real question is, "What are the causal factors that account for the carelessness?"

In part, the causal factors which have brought about a problem may be the inadequacy of current policies and programs which are not designed well to solve the problem. Always ask, "What is wrong with what we are doing now?"

Always make a unique study of your particular problem situation. Similar appearing effects may have different crucial underlying causal factors. One student may be doing a poor job of studying because of a lack of motivation, another because of poor study skills, and still another because of a lack of aptitude.

o Step 3 Discover all possible solutions. At this point do not stop to evaluate solutions, but rather exert all possible effort to discover as many solutions as you can. You may have uncovered solutions that have been tried or proposed in your initial investigation, you may run across solutions proposed by current writers or speakers, you may talk to people who have been faced with a similar problem to find out what actions they took and how successful they were.

Do not forget the possibility of combining solutions or the best features of different solutions so as to come up with something "new." Do not forget that you also may invent a new solution. Be sure to include the status quo in your list of solutions, for it may turn out that you will decide that the current policy or plan being followed is still the best of all possible solutions.

In some cases it is necessary to group solutions into broad classes for your initial analysis. This occurs when many solutions have been proposed and some have only slight variations. In the area of financing medical care, you might want to consider such broad classes as government plans, private plans, insurance plans, and so on. Later, you will have to add your individual specifications to the solution decided on.

o Step 4. Decree Criteria for Evaluating Plans. When you set up criteria you are like a knowledgeable man shopping for a new car; he first decides on the essential features he wants and then he searches for a car which has all or the most important of those features.

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In the same way, the problem solver should set up criteria or standards and then investigate to determine which solution best measures up to those standards.

The first criterion, of course, has to do with solving the problem. We should ask, "What are the minimum acceptable results?" We often cannot expect a "perfect" soltuion, but we can often judge the minimum results we would be willing to settle for. Other than this, we want to make sure that further evils will not result from adopting a plan. Acting to solve a problem in one area may create problems in other areas, and we need to anticipate these. When the Eighteenth Amendment to the Consititution was passed, it ushered in an era of undercover drinking and crime.

Other criteria may be related to the amount of time and money and the number of personnel available. Still others may be related to legal and policy considerations, for a solution that may be workable may be illegal or contrary to an established policy. Either the solution or the policy must be changed. Ethical considerations may also arise, for some solutions may be judged to be unfair to individuals or groups. We may also have to consider the approval of interest groups whose approval is necessary for the adoption of a plan, or whose cooperation is necessary if the plan is to work.

In some cases the time element is a factor, for it may be a plan must be solved by a given date or not at all, and the solution chosen should provide for this.

Here are some examples of statements of criteria: "Any plan adopted to reduce the over-crowding in our schools should not result in the hiring of poorly trained teachers"; "Any plan adopted should stay within the $100,000.00 budgeted"; "Any plan adopted to lower the cost of manufacturing our produce should not conflict with the policy of maintaining high standards of workmanship and materials."

• Step 5. Determine the Advantages and Disadvantages of Each Solution. In order to accomplish this step you will need to have a reasonably complete description of each solution. In addition, you can use a 8-1/2x11 sheet of paper for each solution. List the advantages on one half of the page and the disadvantages on the other.

A. With each solution, you want to first of all judge to what extent it will solve the problem. B. You then need to judge to what extent it is likely to bring about new significant evils. C. You then proceed to judge each solution in terms of the other criteria you have decided on in Step 4. D. In some cases, this evaluation may uncover other criteria which you will want to add to your list.

After evaluating each soution individually, you are then ready to compare and contrast the solutions.

• Step 6. Decide on the best solution. The last step in problem-solving is to decide on the best solution -- that one which in the balance has the most significant advantages and least significant disadvantages. This calls for systematic comparison and contrast of the solutions.

Number the solutions, and then start out by comparing No. 1 to No. 2; after you decide which is the best, then compare that one to No 3., and so on. Continue this process until the one or the combination remaining are judged to be the most satisfactory. Not

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always will you settle on the solution which promises to most completely solve the problem, for such a solution may have one or more disadvantages of great significance.

You should give the solution you decide on a final careful check to make sure you have not misjudged it. If possible, you should run a pilot study to pretest it before putting it into action.

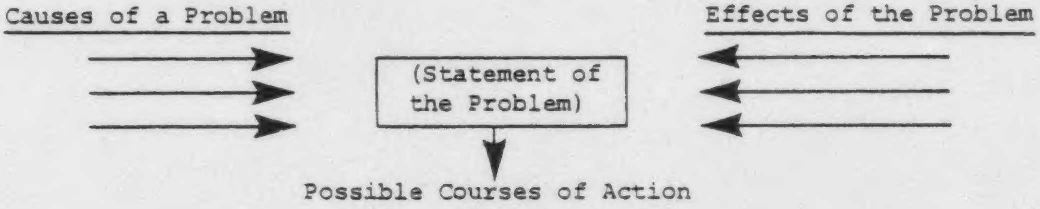
Taking action; putting the solution into operation. Putting a solution into operation calls for careful study of what has to be done, when, and by whom. Sometimes it calls for persuasion in order to get the solution accepted. It may call for people with special competencies and supervisory skills. Successful problem solving does not stop with the decision as to what plan to adopt, but carries over into an action phase.

PROBLEM-SOLVING EXERCISE

Objective: The leader will be able to lead and support the staff in problem-solving activities.

Activity Options for Trainers:*

1. Present the following model of a procedure for analyzing problems and hand out the sheet "Steps in Problem Analysis."



Break into groups of three. Each group should have a blackboard or newsprint sheet and draw the model on the sheet, leaving ample room for writing. Ask each group to state a problem, if possible a problem common to members of that group.

The problem statement goes into the "Statement of the Problem" box. Each small group then proceeds to list the reasons why the problem exists and some of the consequences of it.

The group then tries to list as many possible courses of action as it can, selects one, and lists what might happen if it were to be adopted. This activity should not be rushed.

Reassemble the total group. Ask a member of each trio to summarize the work of his or her group. Allow about five minutes for each summary.

2. Use force field-analysis to have the group examine a possible activity, list all the projected consequences--both positive and negative, and determine the point at which they balance.

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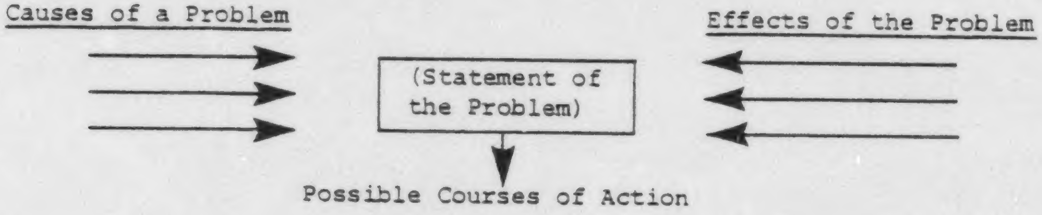
*This exercise can be used in a training session or other work session. One person must take the role of trainer, the others those of participants.

Sample Handout Sheet For PFs To Use In Practice

Steps In Problem Analysis

1. State a common problem, and analyze its causes and effects. The following model may be helpful.



2. Every situation has a history. Problems exist because people have done (or not done) things. When a group reaches a point of extreme dissatisfaction with a situation, something can be done. However, until the problem is thoroughly examined by many people, only a few will be sufficiently concerned to take action.

3. First, someone must state the problem. For example, a problem might be: "Coop Extension people do not like or participate effectively in staff meetings." This statement goes into the box in the model above.

   What is it that staff member's don't like about meetings? Why don't they get involved in them? (They cover items that are of little or no concern to individual teachers, they are dominated by one or two people, nothing is really ever accomplished, etc.)

   What are the effects of this problem--inattention and lack of commitment, boredom, frustration, anger, impatience?

4. At some point, it will become evident that there is general dissatisfaction with the situation because most people see and are not content with the consequences. Now, but not before this point, it is appropriate to take some action.

5. List as many possible courses of action as you can. Take enough time. Do not work with any one alternative until you are satisfied you have listed all options available. Then, for each alternative, develop a list of probable consequences if you were to adopt it. Again, take enough time. The problem was probably a long time in development, so take a little more time to be sure of the course of action to solve it.

PROCESS OBSERVATION

The role of the process observer is to monitor the way in which the group proceeds and at some point report back to the group what has taken place.

The observer does not participate in the discussion. He or she sits apart from the group in order to gain a more objective view of what is happening within the group. When a discussion becomes hopelessly bogged down or whenever the group members want to make use of the observer, he or she may be called on to give feedback on what has taken place. At the conclusion of the meeting, the observer relates his or her perceptions of the group's process and behaviors to its members.

Process observers look for the following things:

- Is the group keeping to the agenda?
- Does the group convene on time? End on time?
- Is there balanced participation, with no one person dominating?
- How is the emotional atmosphere?
- Do nonverbal clues match verbal expressions?
- Is the group dependent on the chairperson or convener?
- Do members help others communicate by paraphrasing or restating points?
- Are good questions asked and answered?
- Is the group distracted by side issues?
- Are members building on others' contributions or overlooking these contributions?
- Are people actively listening and asking for clarification if needed?
- Is there feedback and perception checking?
- Are members summarizing and checking for understanding?
- Are points being backed up with data and reasons?
- How are decisions made?
- Does everyone have a chance to get in on decision making?
- Has the group reached common ground in the time allotted?

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This list is not complete, as various groups will need to pay special attention to certain points. However, process observers may want to have a ckecklist in order to remind themselves what to look for.

The observer should be prepared to give feedback in terms of behavior descriptions--"Three members were late to the meeting"--not in evaluative terms--"Bill and Tom are never on time because they are disorganized!" Feedback should be directed to both sender and receiver and should be candid but stated kindly. Objective reporting is what is desired.

Because the observer does not enter into the discussion, it may be necessary to rotate this role from meeting to meeting or to ask a person outside the group to assume this role. Taking turns offers members an opportunity to learn this skill be experiencing it.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ABOUT BEING A MEMBER OF A COMMUNITY GROUP

1. What is a Community Group? (CG)

   It is a group of citizens representing all elements of the community, who will work together to improve the community or region.

2. What will it try to accomplish?

   The CG will attempt to determine what the total community wants to be, to gather and process those ideas, to look for ways to accomplish plans which grow from those ideas--in short, to make the leadership of the community responsive to the particular needs and capabilities of the total community.

3. How much time will it take?

   Frequent involvements during the year--at least one meeting each month and task accomplishment time--can be expected.

4. What will I be doing?

   You will have direct involvement in decisions affecting the community, including helping to determine the needs and order of priority of those needs, helping to search for solutions to those problems, helping to institute those solutions, assisting in evaluating the results and receiving skill training for these tasks whenever needed.

5. Can I do just some of all that?

   Yes, you can serve on specific task force teams without being a member of the CG, but it helps to be fairly permanent in the community, to be available for several meetings and skill training sessions, and to enjoy working with and talking to other people.

6. Can my friends help me?

   Yes, sharing each decision or plan with 5 or 10 of your friends and sharing the task to be done helps the whole community to be involved in decision making, brings more ideas and energy to the tasks, and helps the people in the community to understand each other.

RECORDING FIELD EXPERIENCES: A BRIEF NOTE

The basic purpose for writing a narrative report of each contact with the community is to facilitate and record your work in a community. For this purpose, answers to the following questions are helpful:

- What happened during this field experience?
- What insights did you have as a result of this activity?
- What concerns or questions do you have now?

A second reason to write a report is to make your work in the next community easier. The following questions provide help for reminding you of your own work and also provide guidelines to yourself or others who might develop useful materials to assist another experience, either your own or someone else's.

- What particular support material or process was helpful or would have been helpful during this field experience if it had been available? Why?
- How did the materials/process that you planned to try work out?
- How did something work out that you didn't plan but actually did or used? Please give brief examples of things that went well.
- What important or unanswered questions or concerns were raised by: board, citizens, others?

ROLE OF THE GROUP CONVENER OR CHAIRPERSON

The convener of a group is responsible for conducting meetings, leading discussions, and making sure that the group is using effective processes for doing its work.

As group leader, the convener is conscious of the potential for dominating the group and tries to control such tendencies. Therefore, the convener avoids talking a lot, records everyone's comments, and does not argue vociferously with group members. He or she also tries to draw everyone into group deliberations.

As discussion leader, the convener tries not to dominate discussions. However, when the need arises, he or she is forceful and definite. To avoid unproductive periods, the convener also keeps the group moving systematically through its tasks by summarizing, reminding people that they have a certain amount to accomplish during the meeting, and asking pertinent questions.

Finally, the convener makes sure that the minutes of the meeting are recorded.

Guidelines for the Role of Convener or Chairperson

1. Before the meeting:
    a. Review the agenda.
    b. Ask for a volunteer to take minutes.
2. During the meeting:
    a. Call it to order promptly.
    b. Help the group to establish priorities and to decide how much time to spend on each agenda item.
    c. Keep the group focused on the subject (i.e., monitor the discussion and inform the group when it strays from the agenda).
    d. Keep the group to its time commitments for each agenda item.
    e. Be attuned to, and try to help avoid, any confusion.
    f. At the end of each agenda item:
        - Check to be sure that everyone who wanted to was able to contribute to the discussion.
        - Summarize or ask someone else to summarize (make sure that the secretary records the summary).

g. Check process whenever it seems appropriate regarding:

- satisfaction of group members with their participation
- decision making

h. Conduct or ask someone to conduct a debriefing session during the last 10 minutes of the meeting. Ask the following questions:

- Did we accomplish our goals for the meeting?
- Did we use our resources effectively?
- Did we waste time?

i. Call the meeting to a close promptly.

3. After the meeting:

   a. Check with the secretary to see that he or she is clear about minutes.

   b. Transfer left-over agenda items to the agenda for the next meeting.

ROLE PLAYING AND SIMULATION

Purpose

Role playing is a method for studying the attitudes and feelings of individuals in simulated situations.

Procedure

Group members are asked to take different roles and improvise dialogue and action to fit a real or hypothetical situation. In this way, they can learn more about their own attitudes and behavior and try to find new ways of dealing with situations they face. Role playing is usually followed by a discussion of what went on and how the participants (and observers, if any) felt about it. Participants and observers describe the behavior they have seen and share their feelings to aid in the analysis.

Types of Role Plays

1. Simulations: In a simulation, a trainer or facilitator may come with prepared situations and described roles. Participants usually select the roles they wish to play.

2. Role Reversals: In role reversal, those actually involved in a conflict may be asked to act out the situation, taking their opponents' viewpoints.

3. Demonstrations: As a demonstration, two trainers or facilitators may act out a situation for a group and then have group members act out the same situation.

Role playing provides a useful way to work through problems, manage conflict, try new behavior, and gain an understanding of another role or point of view.

SEARCHING FOR USEFUL INFORMATION

Task forces can look for new ideas by (1) searching for literature, (2) consulting other people, or (3) visiting programs and facilities.

1. Searching the Literature

- Most staff members will have publications from the national and state professional associations.
- Most state departments issue publications that are available.
- If the local library doesn't have what the task force needs, someone there may be able to point out other area or state resources.
- A number of information networks, such as the ERIC system, Agrie info bank, exist that offer a wide variety of information, as well as efficient retrieval systems. Information about these networks can be obtained from state universities and regional education agencies.

2. Consulting Other People

- There are many untapped resources inside the community. A task force that learns how to find and consult a local person with expertise has a potential source of ideas. As a starter, once the task force decides what it wants to know, it can ask the entire CG to suggest possible sources.
- Many people are also available outside the community. The important thing is to find them. Consultants (from regional and state agencies) are often available for the asking. The task force will need some assistance from the Community Developer in finding and arranging the meetings with agency consultants.

3. Visitations

- A bulletin "How to Visit Schools" is a good example of how to plan, arrange and conduct site visitations. It is easily adaptable to other siuations.

SELECTING A GROUP LEADER FOR YOUR TASK FORCE

Groups function best if some person agrees to assume leadership responsibilities. A group with a specific task to perform in a short period of time should not leave the designation of a leader or a leader's responsibilities to chance.

Factors to consider when choosing a leader are

- responsibilities and tasks that person will have
- guidelines for his or her behavior
- ways to choose the leader--for example, consensus or democratic vote

The leader should be someone who is acceptable to everyone, wants the task, and can operate impartially. In the event that there is no effective leader within the group, the group may wish to be enlarged to include such a person.

SHORT HINTS FOR PROGRAM ASSOCIATES

A professional who is helping others in new situations can use the following ideas when working with a group that is working through a new process one step at a time:

Support

When the group gets close to mastering a step, support and reward each action that brings them closer to the final process.

Repetition

Repetition of any one step helps people master it and makes it fairly automatic--be sure they--not you--do it.

Multiplier Effect

When one process is mastered, any similar process is easier to master and can be introduced with much less assistance.

The helper should show and explain; he or she should not give too much help or make those he or she is helping feel embarrassed.

SKILLS FOR COMMUNITY LEADERS

As a Community leader taking an active role in community problem solving, you may be required to use specific skills to help guide the group to function effectively. Some of these skills are:

1. Skills necessary for facilitating a problem-solving process.

   The leader/facilitator should be familiar with at least one method for each of the following:

   conducting a needs assessment

   managing data resulting from a needs assessment

   creating a prioritized list of community problems

   establishing criteria for an acceptable solution

   setting up teams to search for a solution

   identifying resources

   visiting other sites to gather information

   considering alternatives and selecting solutions

   creating implementation and evaluation plans

   monitoring and adopting the solution

   evaluating the project

   preparing reports

2. Skills necessary for facilitating changing norms in a group.

   In working with a community group the leader should be able to:

   identify and resolve conflicts

   support new norms and roles

   support those groups previously excluded from participation

   promote recognition of role constraints

3. Skills in interpersonal communications. Whenever necessary, the leader should be able to train others to:

   function as observers

   refrain from projecting personal bias onto the group

   listen

   give and receive feedback

   paraphrase

SUGGESTED LIST OF CONTENTS OF A COMMUNITY NOTEBOOK

The following items help a community to keep a record of its activities and involvements.

- Explanatory material about community development
- Agreement between the community and agency supporting community development
- Newspaper articles about the community's involvement in community development
- Roster of members of the community group
- Minutes of meetings
- Products of the work of the community group including:

  opinion leader survey forms

  "criteria of mix" developed to represent community attitude and beliefs

  needs assessment survey forms

  needs assessment survey results

  prioritized list of community concerns

  recommendations of search task force teams

  other products of the work of the Community Group as it moves through the stages of community development

TABULATING DATA

The CG now has all the results of its survey back and the actual information-gathering activity is finished. If the data are not used at this point, any hopes and expectations raised in the community and school about the needs assessment will vanish--and be nearly impossible to resurrect.

> QUICK ACTION IS NEEDED TO TABULATE THE DATA AND TO REPORT BACK TO THE COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL AS SOON AS POSSIBLE!

With the help of the Community Developer, the CG should explore the possibility of getting help from the regional or local school district office. Other sources of labor--especially students--might be investigated.

Following are some suggestions that Community Developers can share with the CG to help in tabulating data.

Generally, the most efficient way for CGs to tabulate needs assessment data is by hand. Sophisticated electronic and machine techniques are usually far beyond the reach of the CG's resources. Furthermore, when the CG manages its own data, a sense of ownership is built, and the group is encouraged to feel a sense of responsibility and wants to do something about the results.

The following hand tabulation procedure may be used for both questionnaires and interviews. In either case a tabulation form must be designed. This form would consist of coded blanks or cells, preceded by the actual questions used. For example:

Do you think the community services are:

Good	Bad	No Opinion

In tabulating the answers to open-ended questions, categories of responses must be identified. Here, too, a row of cells will suffice, labeling each cell by category. For example, responses to the question, "What is your attitude toward vocational education?" might be:

- Good idea.
- Kids need it.
- Prepares kids for real world.
- Is practical.

- Students really need the 3-R's.
- We can't afford it.

If you were trying to determine whether people would support vocational education, you might wish to use the following cells to categorize the answers people gave.

Favorable	Unfavorable
|||	||

On the other hand you might want to know the range of attitudes towards vocational education. That display might look like this:

Generally Positive	Necessary Part of Education	Other Things Are More Important	Too Expensive
|	|||	||	𝍸

These categories are flexible, depending on what you had in mind in asking the question. Use your best judgment in setting them up.

TASK FORCE EVALUATION SHEET

The task force on ______________________________________:

1.	found the charge to be obscure and hard to work on	1 2 3 4 5	found the task to be clear and definite
2.	was not willing to do the task assigned	1 2 3 4 5	was eager to assume its responsibilities
3.	never got organized at all and didn't get the job done	1 2 3 4 5	worked in a useful, orderly fashion and completed the task
4.	did not present useful information to anyone	1 2 3 4 5	reported its findings to the community in a way which assisted decision making
5.	became a new power group to protect a set of ideas	1 2 3 4 5	quickly dissolved as a temporary work force in order to get on to other things

Ideas which would have helped this task force are as follows:

TASK FORCE MEMBERS' FEEDBACK SHEET

I felt this group:

1.	never got a clear idea of the task	1 2 3 4 5	understood what it was supposed to do
2.	was interested in doing this task	1 2 3 4 5	was not interested in attempting this task
3.	encouraged the participation and contribution of all members	1 2 3 4 5	was dominated by one or more members to the exclusion of others
4.	functioned with hostility or internal competition	1 2 3 4 5	had a cooperative atmosphere
5.	had the skills necessary to do the task or successfully sought and used consultant help	1 2 3 4 5	did not have skills necessary to do a good job, and/or failed to get help

USING TASK FORCES FOR PROBLEM SOLVING

A task force is a temporary small group chosen by a larger group to solve a particular problem and report what they have learned. Such task forces expand the problem-solving capabilities of the larger group.

- They can concentrate their energies on one particular task.
- They are chosen for their interest in this task and generally have special experience or expertise.
- As a smaller unit they have less difficulty getting together and sharing ideas.
- They learn special problem-solving skills in doing their task and these skills can be used to help the entire SCG in the future.

Task forces work efficiently when (1) the group gives them a clear task to do, (2) members are chosen on the basis of their time and willingness to do the task, (3) members have access to help and resources from the larger group or a facilitator, and (4) their final recommendations are taken seriously by the larger group.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE COMPOSITION OF EFFECTIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING TEAMS

In order to attack their problem effectively, task forces must have members with certain "competencies." Several competencies can be combined in one member--for instance, one person can be a good leader and also know where to get skill training.

In general, the group will function best if it contains:

1. someone who has competence in the problem area being addressed (i.e., a math teacher, a tax consultant, a cook)

2. someone who is a good group leader and can facilitate interpersonal communication

3. members who have access to skill training and are willing to be trained

4. members who represent diverse jobs or community orientations, so that the group will be made aware of a variety of resources

5. someone who can objectively view the group's functioning and purposes (a good group leader, a teacher, or the facilitator)

6. members who represent those groups affected by the group's decisions

The task force will be most efficient if it has 4 to 6 members. Larger groups tend to (a) have difficulty getting together, (b) need constant clarification of the task, and (c) lose members who do not play important roles. Therefore, the group should be small enough that (a) everyone can talk in meetings and contact one another informally and (b) all members play an active role.

USING TASK FORCES FOR SEARCH

Who and Why

The CG often divides up its work among task forces. These groups are small enough to work together easily and large enough to include representatives of all affected groups. These persons need not be CG members but may agree to serve on a temporary committee. Including diverse representatives encourages communication with other groups.

When

Generally, search activities begin while the needs assessment report is being assembled. Formal search activities take place after a prioritized list of goals is published. It is recommended that in some areas a date be set for concluding search activities. This date should take into account budget planning periods. It is important that at least preliminary figures for new programs be provided at the appropriate budget time.

How

The first search meeting usually begins with sharing ideas about what the search task involves. This discussion can be conducted by the CG chairperson or the Community Developer. In presenting this overview, it may be helpful to reflect on the reasons the CG was created. It is also helpful to emphasize that this is an integrating activity, not a competitive one, that it is intended to help others share rather than replace the tasks of local agency staffs and administrators.

For each search activity, community goals and needs are reviewed. These will include some or all of the final prioritized list the CG reported earlier. Then tentative timelines are established for completing search activities, and CG members volunteer for task forces in each area.

Next, these task forces meet separately. A useful first activity for each group is to consider whether its membership includes representatives of all groups affected by the need or goal. Some groups may require staff specialty areas. The task force can recruit members from these local resources to share its work or request help from state or university resources.

Next, members consider the tasks involved in a search. Identifying possible resources and creating a storage system for information are usually top concerns.

Task force members may also want to write up a definition of the task for their group. At this point, the search can usually begin in a successful way.

CG members, meanwhile, may find it useful to pbulicize a list of search areas and names of task force chairpersons. They can also invite members of the community to contribute any helpful information, suggesting that people call chairpersons directly at home.

THE COMMUNITY GROUP - ITS WORK, ORGANIZATION AND OPERATING PROCEDURES

Each member of the Community Group (CG) was nominated by people because their opinions and ideas were respected. The CG membership is therefore composed of respected persons representing a wide variety of sentiments, occupations and/or organizations within the community. They are "opinion leaders" for the people who live in the community. What they think, what they discuss, what they believe, what they learn is important for what happens now and for future actions that might be taken within the community. It is crucial for community improvement that the focus of skills training in communication, problem solving and decision making be on this group in order to increase individual and group skills that will enable the group to be independent and productive.

Organization

The formal structure for the CG is very simple....purposely so! In the formation of it a temporary Chairman and a Recorder (secretary) are usually elected by the group. Informal procedures (not sloppy) for conducting the business of the group are usually more interesting and productive than formal, highly structured ways of doing things. Attempts are made early to gain concensus rather than become involved in win/lose voting procedures. (Roberts Rules are much too formal and often cause the emphasis to be placed on parliamentary maneuvers rather than on the important content under discussion.)

As the Community Group matures, it sometimes appoints an Observer to monitor the progress of each meeting. This task is usually rotated each meeting so that every CG member has this learning opportunity. The Chairperson is the key to keeping meetings moving, interesting and productive. Meetings are called when it has been agreed that something important requires the attention of the group. An agenda is prepared in advance and definite starting and stopping times for meetings established.

It is very important to keep the CG "mix" intact. If individuals representing a specific criteria of mix fail to attend CAT meetings and/or move away, the group should fill the position, thereby keeping the CG at full strength. If a group or sentiment has been omitted from the original mix, the CG should add another mix category and appoint a new member.

No formal plan has been followed regarding "term of office" for CG members. Some groups have "drawn straws" for 3, 2 and 1 year terms. Others have allowed normal mobility to keep the flow of new members coming into the organization. Experience has shown that when a CG begins creating action in the community, other individuals identify themselves and offer to help. New leadership frequently emerges from unexpected sources.

Standing Task Force Teams (committees) can be formed to prevent duplicating advisory groups. Usually Task Force Teams are appointed for specific purposes and disbanded when the task is completed.

THE FORMATION AND USE OF TASK FORCE TEAMS (TFTs)

The TFT is a working arm of the Partnership for Rural Improvement. It is a temporary (usually) or permanent (rarely) body appointed by the CG, in a manner decided upon by the CG. Its task is specific, such as: design a needs assessment instrument; visit three communities with programs which might be useful for the local community and report on that visit; plan the evaluation procedures for a new program which will be implemented in the community, design and conduct a process for handling visitors to the new program.

Before a TFT is formed, the specific task it will be called upon to do should be clearly formulated by the CG. This allows for persons to volunteer, be voted for, or appointed to the TFT whose skills, time or information best fit the task.

TFTs are most useful when they contain all or most of the following membership elements.

- A member of the CG (necessary)
- A person with appropriate skills or knowledge to the task
- Representatives from groups who will be responsible for, or affected by, the task in question.
- Sufficient poeplepower for the task at hand - a community-wide survey team needs many members
- A representative or persons or groups opposed to the suggested tasks in order to provide a feedback mechanism to that group about the progress of the task. Often very strong support is gathered for a community program after opponents come to understand and be included in the new program.

After the TFT is formed, its specific task should be explained, and a timeline set up for reporting on progress or completion of the task. A TFT often reports progress to the CG chair, and makes completion reports on tasks to the entire CG for action.

The following hints help to make TFTs both effective and pleasant for all concerned.

- Describe the task clearly with a definite time line.
- When a TFT reports, be sure he/she is commended for what he/she did. Work accepted in an unresponsive way does not promote retention of skills, concepts or involvement, or feelings of "worthwhileness" of the task or the effort spent.
- Only refer a task back to a TFT once for additional work or information.
- If the CG decides more work of information is then needed, this should be described as a NEW task, and a new TFT selected.
- There should be group rewards for quick formation and disbandment of TFTs. This will promote the work of the group being done in an effective way, will encourage participation in TFT efforts, and will increase the capacity of the entire CG to function as a problem-solving group.

THE JOB OF A CHAIRPERSON

The chairperson's job in a Community Group is critical to the success of the group. The person selected to fill this role has many responsibilites, such as,

1. Exercising (or developing) skills to assist others to participate constructively in the group so they do not dominate or withdraw from group work
2. Working at all times toward an open climate and consensus decisions
3. Functioning (or learning to function) as a group facilitator whose own opinions, ideas and feelings do not dominate or control the group
4. Utilizing (or learning to utilize) both the skills of other group members and the skills of consultants
5. Monitoring the work of task force teams for completion of work, compliance with timelines and need for resources or assistance
6. Monitoring attendance and replacement of community group members in order to maintain a balanced representative group
7. Planning and reviewing each group activity with the Community Facilitator and others
8. Communicating with others in the Community about the work being accomplished by the group

This is a time and energy consuming job; its rewards are a smoothly functioning group whose members share tasks, work well together, and get work done, all of which promote community improvement.

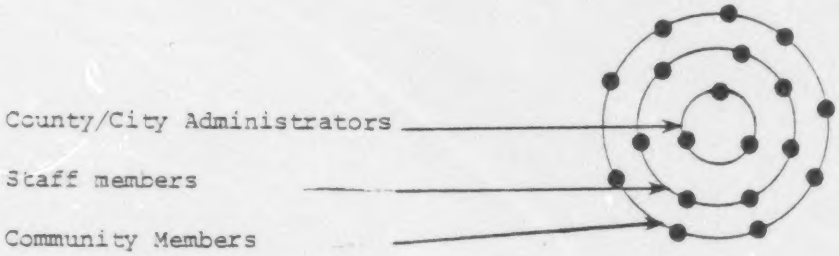
THE KIVA

When To Use the Kiva:

The Kiva is especially useful when people are talking without listening to each other. It structures the time and conditions for speaking so that many points of view can be expressed. It generally builds a collaborative spirit. It clarifies the significant points of disagreement.

What It Is:

The Kiva is a technique for groups to use when they need to listen to diverse opinions in the group. It is a modification of the fishbowl technique. Each circle is made up of the members of each of the different role or opinion groups. For example, suppose different points of view need to be discussed about passing a city bond issue. The PA might suggest a Kiva--one circle of County/City administrators, one of County/City staff members, and one of community members. Or instead of dividing according to roles, the PA might divide according to those who strongly oppose another bond and those who strongly support another bond. These circles are arranged as indicated below.



How It is Used:

1. Determine the role or interest groups and arrange the groups in a circle or square.

2. Announce the amount of time to be allocated to each group--i.e., 20 minutes.

3. Present a clear statement of the issue to be discussed.

4. Ask the group in the center to use its time to talk, without interruption from opposing points of view, about their opinion, experience, and wishes.

5. Rotate each group into the center and give it the same amount of time to explore the issue.

6. Allow additional time for interaction among all participants.

THE PROGRAM ASSOCIATE'S ROLE IN CREATING A CONTINUOUS PROCESS OF INFORMATION SHARING IN A COMMUNITY

The PA working with a Community Group has responsibility for encouraging many processes: data gathering and analysis before decision making, systematic referral of issues to the larger community and others. One of these many processes is that of habitual sharing of information.

In helping to establish the habits and mores of information sharing, the primary role of the PA is that of setting an example. It is particularly important for the PA to create an awareness that people working together can help each other by consciously seeing themselves as resources to each other. The following behaviors have been found helpful in creating such an awareness:

- Provide, in a casual way, books, articles from newspapers, advertising material, maps, data about people and places. If this is done in a manner that says "This is from me to you as a friend" it helps to establish information sharing behavior in the community.
- Reward by commenting positively on sharing that is seen to occur between people. Again, this needs to be casual, and it must be sincere. Such recognition will help to make information sharing a consciously chosen process.
- Serve as a messenger to get information sharing going. Carry a book that was favorably mentioned by one group member to another member, with the comment that "George thought this was useful, and it might help with your task." Try to get them to talk briefly to each other about it.
- Keep it up all the time. Establish as part of your own set of behaviors the carrying of helpful stuff from one person or place to another. When you are going anyway, take along that movie or that ad for a set of books and share it with someone whose task it supports.

The Work of the Community Group

The CG is a group which is independent of the local governing board/group. Its function is to examine problems, which it identifies, study them by looking at alternative solutions, develop a plan of action and recommend it to the local governing board/group for implementation. To accomplish its purpose, the CG usually appoints Task Force Teams to delve more deeply into issues or problems. While a TFT may consist of many community members, at least one member of it should be a CG member in order to provide communication to and from the Community Group.

At times, the CG may be asked by the local governing board/group to assist, monitor and help evaluate new programs which have been approved. A TFT for this purpose is usually appointed by the CG.

A highly important part of the work of the CG is communication. Information about CG activity needs to constantly flow within the community. Each CG member must carry a responsibility for communicating with his/her own friendship group if the CG is to function effectively.

If possible, when a CG has been newly formed, large and complex problems should be postponed until the CG has been able to accomplish some smaller tasks. Motivation is created for the CG to tackle bigger, more complicated problems, if some success can be experienced early in its history as an organization.

The CG often becomes an "intake" for community problems or concerns found in the community. CG members may bring them to the attention of the group or non-CG members are welcomed at the meetings to express themselves on specific issues. Manpower to investigate all concerns expressed soon becomes a factor with which the CG must deal. A priority of work usually is established. The CG usually finds itself a "referral agency" in order to satisfy questions/problems/concerns of individuals within the community. This is an important activity of the CG since it deals with "here and now" concerns of the people. Sometimes by providing a "forum" for ventilating an issue larger conflicts can be prevented.

When TFTs are studying specific problems it is very important to bring in all points of view from the local community. This can be done informally through personal interviews, invitations to TFT meetings and/or holding neighborhood coffee hours. The CG is most effective when it is actively trying to educate itself on all the different facets of an issue.

Operating Procedures

As an independent group, of course, the CG is free to establish its own methods of working for community improvement. Few groups have formalized these into a set of by-laws or standard operating procedures. What many have done, however, is to chart the decision-making processes that are being used. It is important that CG members understand clearly these procedures and that all groups and individuals in the community know how the CG operates. A simple flow chart of events seems to work well to communicate this information.

Conclusion

The Community Group is an important group within a community. Its members are opinion leaders representing the mix of the community. They hold the key to any significant, lasting, long-range educational improvement that will be made. Gaining increased skill in communication, decision making and problem solving is crucial for each CG member and for the group if it is to become an independent and productive group. The Task Force Teams enable the work of the Community Group to be accomplished. Their effective operation is necessary if the CG is to be successful.

THINGS TO CONSIDER WHEN TABULATING DATA

If responses to some of your needs assessment has been a simple "yes" or "no," a tally can be kept. Two people may wish to do this; one reading the response, one keeping score.

You may wish to break out the answers:

	Yes	No
Adults	10	5
Men	4	3
Women	2	1
Students	15	10

or

	Yes	No
Community persons	30	40
School staff	5	10
Students	25	3
TOTAL	60	53

If your data are in the form of long, detailed answers that are not easy to handle, you may wish to categorize them:

	Thinks curriculum is OK	Thinks curriculum needs improvement
Adults	25	41
Students	20	30

This can be further reduced:

	Math	Shop	Reading	Art
Citizens	10	2	13	5
School Staff	3	6	5	4
Students	10	4	4	7

You can also tally specific suggestions about each curriculum area:

Math	
Algebra	4
Beginning Calculus	1
Accounting - Mark Greene System	2

VARIOUS METHODS FOR DOING A COMMUNITY SURVEY

Four Alternative Strategies for a Community Survey

1. The process facilitator helps the school-community group survey its own perceptions of educational goals and barriers.

   From the survey data gathered, the SCG establishes a priority list covering the major goals and barriers of the group.

   Before constructing a questionnaire to use in the community, the SCG uses its informal communication network to check its own perceptions.

   On the basis of this information, the SCG constructs a community questionnaire and/or interview guide with which to survey the larger community.

2. The facilitator works with the SCG chairperson and/or steering committee to collect recent studies or survey results that indicate what the local educational problems are.

   The SCG analyzes this information and agrees on a priority list of items from which a questionnaire, interview schedule, or guide for speakup sessions can be constructed.

3. The facilitator presents examples of community surveys that have been used in other communities and reviews them with the SCG.

   The SCG studies these models and obtains ideas of how to frame questions that would be appropriate for the community.

   Using their best judgment, SCG members create their own questionnaire, interview, or guide for speakup sessions.

4. The facilitator helps the SCG in conducting community meetings at which citizens, staff, and students generate their own goals and barriers, tabulate the data, and bring the information back to the SCG.

   The SCG conducts these sessions, generating and tabulating data from each.

   The SCG analyzes the groups and the people who attend to insure maximum coverage of the entire community. Additional sessions are conducted as needed.

   Finally the SCG is satisfied that the data represent all segments of the community and that everyone possible has been involved in the process. The SCG then pools all the information and prepares it for analysis.

When all data have been analyzed, the SCG determines what the community's major educational goals and barriers are and compiles a report of its findings for the school board.

Suggested Ways of Involving the SCG in a Survey

1. The SCG designs a plan for surveying the entire community. Several alternatives are possible.

    - On a community map, all populated areas are plotted and divided into block areas to be canvassed by interviewers or to deliver and pick up questionnaires.

    - If more than one elementary school exists in a district, each one can be designated as an organizational unit for the community survey.

    - The SCG can make an inventory of all church, business and civic organizations, service groups, and institutions its own members represent. Each member is made responsible for contacting the groups to which he or she belongs, conducting a survey, and bringing the data back to the SCG.

    - A high school class (mathematics/social studies, etc.) is enlisted by the SCG to help distribute survey forms, pick them up, tabulate them, and prepare a report.

    - If the SCG finds that everyone in town (small town) has a telephone, phone canvassers can be recruited to call all the people in the community using an interview schedule developed by the SCG.

2. The SCG designs a plan whereby all data collected in the survey are tabulated. Again, many options are available.

    - The SCG can choose to have all its members participate in the tabulations by scheduling several work sessions for this purpose. All members can help with all questions or small groups can be assigned specific questions.

    - The SCG can elect a task force to supervise all tabulations, using community people and/or high school students to do the work.

    - The SCG may ask the school staff and high school students to assist with the tabulations.

    - A task force can be appointed by the SCG to examine alternatives for tabulating the survey data and recommend a plan to the SCG for approval.

WHAT AN EFFECTIVE GROUP DISCUSSION REQUIRES

Effective group discussions occur when members recognize the types of statements they might make and consciously choose types that are appropriate at particular times. These types of statements are discussed below.

1. Input Statements may provide the following:

   - Factual information: "We had 26 requests for service last week."
   - Opinions: "We can't fill that many." "We're getting too much publicity."
   - Definitions of terms: "We don't consider that a request has been made until we receive a deposit."
   - Action proposals and suggestions: "Let's work out a list of priorities, so we can decide which orders to fill."

   Input statements may deal with an external problem, the way the group works, or relationships among group members.

2. Orienting Statements help group members agree on the answer to this question: "If this discussion is successful, what will we have accomplished when we finish?" Orienting responses help members focus on common goals--"Would you help me relate your comment to our topic?"

3. Summarizing Statements describe the issues on which members agree and disagree. Summaries are especially helpful if recorded publicly on a blackboard or a pad of newsprint.

4. Clarifying Statements help the group understand a member's contribution. Such statements include paraphrasing and giving examples.

5. Procedural Statements deal with group methods and include the amount of time given to various agenda items, the methods used in analyzing a problem, and the size and divisions of subgroups.

6. Surveying Statements are made to learn each member's reaction to a summary statement. They include testing for agreement and polling the group.

7. Process Check Statements are statements that invite the group to examine and discuss the way it is working. A group may be helped to examine its lack of progress by considering the meaning of danger signs such as nit-picking, jumping from topic to topic without reaching decisions, carrying on private conversations during meetings, and attacking ideas before they are fully described.

8. Climate Building Statements establish a friendly atmosphere and include making it easier for silent members to participate.

Adapted from John L. Wallen's consultant work with the Northwest
Regional Educational Laboratory, June 1970.

WHAT ARE THE DIFFERENT WAYS OF GATHERING INFORMATION?

Here are some ways to gether data:

A. Written Questionnaire

1. Open-ended Answers: Anything from finishing a sentence to writing an essay
2. Multiple Choice: Forced choice where you must pick only one or free choice to select as many as are correct for you.
3. Preferred Choice: A form of forced choice where you select the things you like best or least as compared with other things (Would you rather be a helper in reading or arithmetic?)
4. Scaled Response: On a five-point scale where 1 is "not at all" and 5 is "very much", check how you liked the way we worked on social studies today. For younger children; Check the face that shows how you feel about our new workbooks.

B. Interview: May be open and free flowing or highly-structured with the questions figured out in advance and closely followed.

1. Total Group: Discussion where questions are raised to see how they are responded to in the total group
2. Small group: A certain combination of people who are relevant are brought together for discussion
3. Key Informant: Data is gathered from one or more individuals who you have reason to believe can give accurate views on what the others would say
4. Each Individual: An interview where each individual answers the questions by himself

When selecting tools for data collection, two factors should be kept in mind:

1. The selection of one force to seek data about, should be based on its probably importance
2. The method by which data is gathered should be determined by considering the kind of information needed against a consideration of possible effects of trying to get that information in a particular way.

The selection of the instrument should reflect the best possible match between these two factors.

WORKSHEET FOR BUILDING A SCHOOL-COMMUNITY GROUP
-SAMPLE-

MIX CRITERIA	PRIMARY NOMINEE(S)	ALTERNATE #1	ALTERNATE #2
Orchardists			
Shed workers			
Laborers			
Downtown merchants			
Medical people			
Clergy			
Young marrieds			
Senior citizens			
Old timers			
Newcomers			
Bridal club			
Chamber of commerce			
Grange			
Kiwanis			
Garden club			
Triangle club			
Civic league			
Women's church groups			
Farmers			
Cattlemen			
Others (which could be added)			
Dam workers			
Housewives			
Indians			

SAMPLE

WORKSHEET FOR DETERMINING CRITERIA FOR AN EFFECTIVE SOLUTION

PRIORITY AREA: *8th grade career awareness/vocational education*

GOAL: *We want the 8th graders to have some concept of careers they wish to explore* ***before*** *they go to high school, so they can take advantage of the career preparation, apprenticeship, and work experience programs there.*

CRITERIA SELECTION

1. AREA: Who is affected? *Staffs of the elementary and vocational education department in the high school, counselors, and interested students.*

   CRITERIA: *The solution must be chosen by a group, which includes interested elementary and secondary staff, counselors, and vocational education students.*

2. AREA: What resources are available? *We could request a staff inservice. Teachers are probably willing to teach career awareness units. A special teacher for this area is probably not feasible, since the upper grades are so badly overloaded. New teachers will be needed next year in three grades just to get the class size down to 30. The high school has some materials which might be useful to the elementary schools. The counselor in the high school has been to several workshops.*

   CRITERIA: *The solution should take into account existing materials and expertise in the high school and should be in the form of materials and inservice training for staff rather than a "voc ed" teacher.*

3. AREA: What other programs or procedures will be affected by a solution? *Obviously the high school vocational education program should be able to build on what the elementary school does. What about the curriculum goals the faculty established last summer? The new courses or materials should be compatible with those. Are students going to have field trips or work experience that might cause some scheduling confusion or use up field trip funds for other grades?*

   CRITERIA: *The solution should be compatible with curriculum goals of the entire school, should take no more than what the faculty considers to be a fair share of field trip monies, and should include activities which do not place undue burden on other staff and programs.*

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Rural Community Development

COMPILED AND ANNOTATED:

Peggy Hitchcock
Human Resource Dept., City of Phoenix

Edward Parmee
Cooperative Extension Service, University of Arizona

1978
Volume 2

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT DIVISION
(Training Volunteers for Community Service)

ASTD

American Society for Training & Development, P.O. Box 5307, Madison, WI 53705

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"The Source and Resource Directory"

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for coded subjects
by content area.

Community Development Division
The American Society for Training and Development
P.O. Box 5307
Madison, Wisconsin 53705

* a free service for CD Division members
* ASTD member price-Volume 2, Source & Resource Directory - $1.00
* nonmember price-Volume 2, Source & Resource Directory - $2.00
10% discount for orders of 10 or more

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Codes For Source and Resource Directory

A - Book
B - Film
C - Article
D - Pamphlet
E - Training Program
F - Periodical
G - Bibliography or Other
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H - Association, Organization

Contemporary Concerns

1. Age - Older, Younger Workers
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2. Sex - Women's Businesses
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3. Race - Minority Businesses
   - Discrimination in Employment
   - Workshops For/About

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Theoretical Basis

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